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ABSTRACT

This student text deals with cultural, historical, and environmental issues specific to Africa. The lessons are presented in various formats including readings, photographic essays, and exercises. The lessons are not specifically couched in the context of health issues, but do contribute to the integrated approach of the biomedical interdisciplinary curriculum. (RE)

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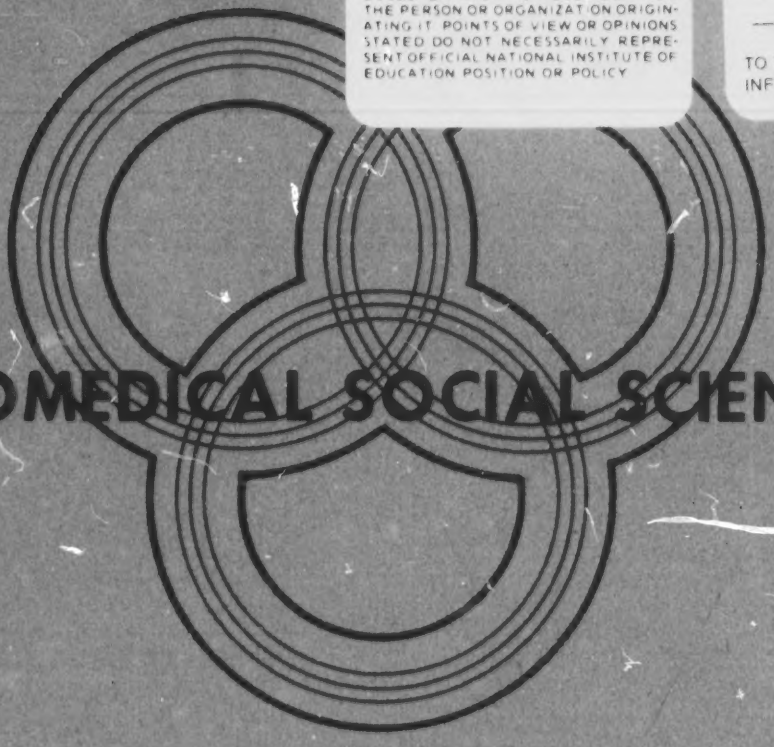

BIOMEDICAL SOCIAL SCIENCE

UNIT II

HEALTH, CULTURE AND ENVIRONMENT

Part Two: Africa

STUDENT TEXT

SE 027 993

BIOMEDICAL SOCIAL SCIENCE

UNIT II

HEALTH, CULTURE AND ENVIRONMENT

STUDENT TEXT, PART TWO: AFRICA

REVISED VERSION, 1975

THE BIOMEDICAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CURRICULUM PROJECT

SUPPORTED BY THE NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION

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The materials in this portion of the Student Text for Unit II were originally developed by the American Universities Field Staff in Hanover, New Hampshire. From the many materials the AUFS developed, the Biomedical Interdisciplinary Curriculum Project staff has selected some readings, illustrations and activities which will help you learn more about Africa. Those selections were compiled and edited by the BICP staff to form this Student Text. The readings may not always appear to belong together even though they deal with the same culture area. By using the questions included in this unit, you should be able to gain from the materials the answers you are seeking. Remember that five of the question sets deal specifically with health matters. Few if any of the readings in this text are specifically about health, but most of them include health-related information. You and others in your group who are analyzing Africa should view this text as a resource. Because you are not able to visit the culture and do field research, you must rely on the impressions and reports of others. Your analysis is in the form of book research. There are exceptions to this. In some cases you will see illustrations, or participate in activities, that should help you get a "feel" for the culture. This is another way to investigate when you cannot be "in the field". Bear in mind that this text--this resource--is only one resource. You can and should use other resources as you conduct your analysis of culture in Africa. Good luck.

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ADDITIONAL MATERIALS FROM UNIT II STUDENT TEXT, PART ONE

Faces of the Boran
Faces of the Sahel
The Well of Wheat
Proverbs
Egg-Carton "Bao"

HANDOUTS FOR THE STUDY OF AFRICA

You will need certain materials in addition to those which have been included in this Student Text and in Unit II Student Text, Part One. Your instructor will supply these materials. Note that the two simulations, "Drought" and "Trade Fair," cannot be conducted without the supplies listed under those titles below.

Ten masters for transparencies:

- Landforms
- Climate
- Vegetation
- Lakes and Rivers
- Population and Distribution
- Language Distribution
- Cities
- Political Boundaries
- Nations
- Who Rules?
- What Do You Know about Africa?
- My Africa: An Essay
- Drought: A Simulation of Human Experience under Drought Conditions in the Sahel (materials for simulation):
  - -Game Board (one for every four students in the class)
- Trade Fair: A Simulation of an All-Africa Exposition (materials for simulation):
  - -Gold Certificates (one sheet)

Four Color Photographs:

- Lesson 1, Photo 4
- Lesson 15, Photo 3
- Lesson 15, Photo 4
- Lesson 18-37, Photo 3

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EDOM

Edom with display of poison containers taken from alleged witches.

Edom Mwasanguti is believed by many to be a witch-finder, cleanser, and medical practitioner. He would also like to be acclaimed a prophet. His homestead in the Southern Highlands of Tanzania is a testament to his success. There live Edom, his wives, and numerous cows, chickens, and ducks. Their gardens provide well in this lush region of hills and valleys. And Edom, often denounced by government officials, claims "inspiration from the Almighty." In his unique way, Edom is powerful. Norman N. Miller visited Edom at his home in April 1969. Mr. Miller, a Field Staff Associate, had

heard conflicting reports of Edom's work. Some called him courageous. Others thought Edom was insane to stand up "against known witches."

Edom moves with quick deliberate motions. He talks rapidly. His appearance does not suggest the charisma he apparently has. Of average size, his only notable physical feature is his large nose. Edom's thin face lends his expression an ascetic look.

To greet visitors, Edom wears a "bush jacket," knee socks, and shorts. His clothing is reminiscent of the outfits worn by former British colonial administrators and "safari" plot movie characters. Edom moves about and even seats himself with an air of authority.

Born nearby in 1920, Edom was the son of a farmer and herdsman. At seven, young Edom was sent outside his home region to attend primary school in Iringa. There he lived with a relative. At thirteen he entered the Iringa Technical School. On returning to Rungwe, he taught carpentry at Mpuguso Boys' School. Dismissed for "incompetence" in his second year of teaching, Edom became a coffee farmer and part-time carpenter. At nineteen he married for the first time. This first wife had two sons, the elder of whom was born lame.

Edom divorced his first wife, then selected a second wife from among the young women indentured to him as payment for his services.

Edom claims to have received his gift for witch-finding and also his courage "from heaven." Similarly, he believes his political activities are a result of divine guidance. Long active in district politics, he had early membership in the Tanganyika African Association (T.A.N.U.). Edom was a founding member of the local coffee growers cooperative and branch of T.A.N.U.

Edom is one of only a few witch-finders among the Nyakyusa, who live in southwestern Tanzania. But his services are in considerable demand. When someone in a village is suspected of practicing witchcraft, Edom is invited to detect the witch. The search is considered "courageous" because he invites witches' wrath, laughs at their threats, and often ties them up with twine and leads them away to "justice."

Not everyone has a positive opinion of Edom. Government officials are the most disapproving and witch-finding has been declared illegal. Ordinary citizens also may criticize. Many have seen Edom's accusations destroy the good reputation of a fellow citizen. Sometimes Edom's activities deprive people of their right to trial. Thus Edom's work may seem "unjust." Still, ethical concerns put aside, there seem to be many who approve of his services.

When working on a case, Edom's main problem is to detect the witches believed to be causing some calamity. Then he must provide proof of their witchcraft and extract confessions if possible. Finally, Edom tries to cleanse the witches and often the entire village.

Edom also provides protective medicines. For this effort Edom usually receives some remuneration, although he claims he has often worked as a form of public service. If payment is made, it is in the form of cash, cows, goats, or for major personal cases—indentured daughters. It is the latter which has evoked the most persistent criticism. Edom has accepted these "teen-age daughters" as chattels to work on his homestead. Rumors that he mistreated the girls aroused public indignation. But Edom's career has been relatively free of trouble. This may be attributed in part to the "awe-inspiring" character of the ceremonies he performs.

Having been called to a village, Edom, accompanied by an assistant, extends formal greeting to the elders. Then he sets up camp outside the village. Often three or four village boys help him. They are chosen both for physical strength and general rowdyism. Critics who have little faith in Edom's claims of divine guidance report that the local boys usually serve as informers. To enhance their sleuthing abilities, Edom gives them beer and hallucinatory drugs.

The witch detection procedures may begin with peaceful home-to-home visits. Edom, sometimes with local elders as well as his assistant, systematically inspects each villager. Other times, Edom sends youthful "assistants" running through the village to drag in suspects and bring back evil medicines.

Confronting a suspect, Edom typically positions himself in front of the man or woman. Then he

rests his right fist on the person's neckbone, "to listen to the body rhythms." Sometimes he uses another technique, such as looking directly into the suspected witch's eyes. Or, holding a mirror, Edom may observe the suspect reflected in the mirror held above his own shoulder. Some resist. When they do, Edom sometimes clamps his own feet over those of the suspect.

Usually Edom's judgment alone is enough to determine guilt. When local suspicions are strong, it is easy for Edom, the visiting witch-finder, to confirm what is already believed.

But Edom generally manages to produce evidence to support his accusations. Medicines, bones, rattles, and other objects are all potential

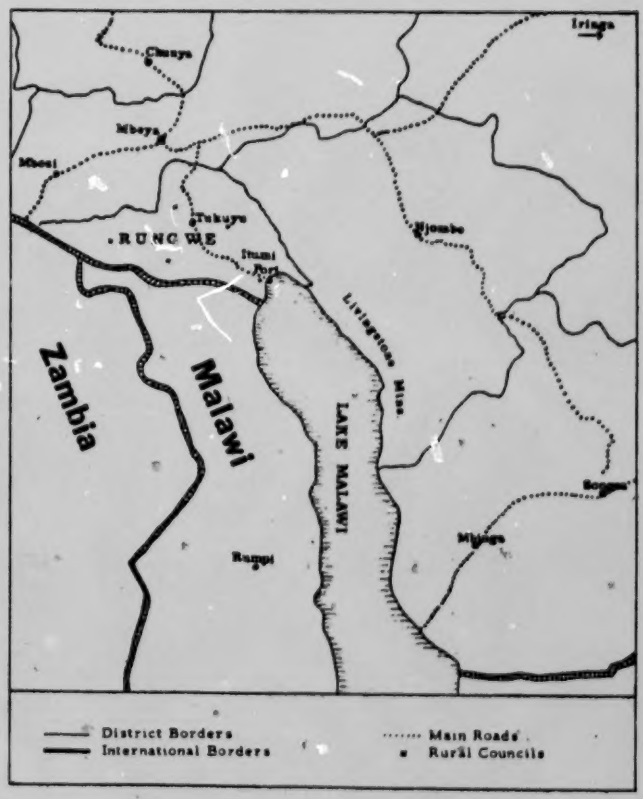
signs of guilt. And because the objects are often relatively common ones, it is easy to associate the subject with the "poisons." It is considered best if the objects have been buried or hidden in the thatching of a hut. Then, Edom says, it appears to be "convincingly dirty and evil."

It is believed that one can be a witch without being aware of it. As a "touch doctor" Edom helps such people by providing "counsel, inspiration, and medicine." Sometimes it is believed that a whole village is afflicted. Its cleansing and purification require "sprinkling" each homestead with special "medicine."

Edom's most dramatic accomplishment, he told Mr. Miller, was his denunciation and capture of eight local witches. They had bragged openly of killing many people. Brought to trial, each was banished from Rungwe District, where Edom worked. Banished "witches" may be sent north to the area around Chunya.

Edom insists he is a "pagan." Observing his activities, it is clear, however, that he has also been influenced by the Lutheran missionaries in his area. As for Edom's world view, he is "unconcerned about events outside the district." Aside from one trip to Dar es Salaam, Tanganyika's capital city, and the schooling at Iringa, Edom has not traveled outside his home region.

TANZANIA
The Southern Highlands



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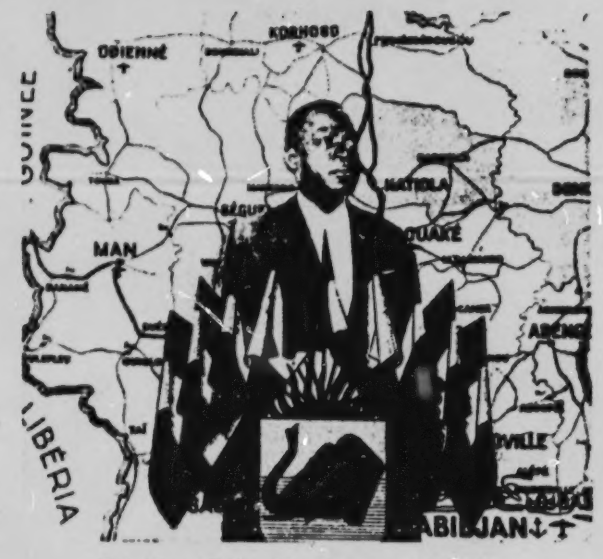
Kwame Nkrumah, President of Ghana (left) and Sékou Touré, President of Guinea at Kristianborg Castle, Accra, Ghana, 1958.



President Félix Houphouët-Boigny of the Ivory Coast, 1961.

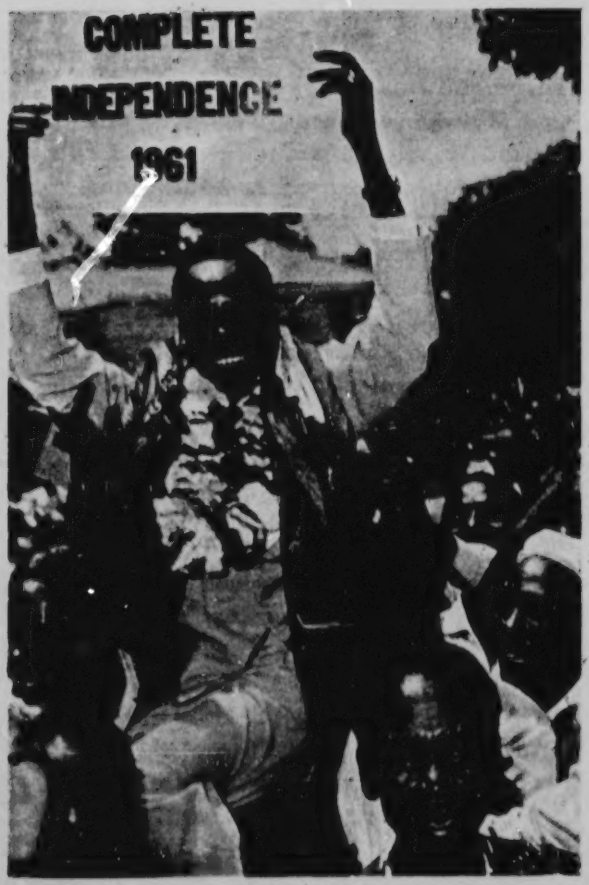
FREEDOM ACHIEVED

The achievement of independence was an historic milestone for most African states. For most it marked the peak of the anticolonial struggle and the beginning of nationhood. The rhetoric of independence had been brilliantly articulated by African nationalists. Among them, Kwame Nkrumah and Julius Nyerere, Kenneth Kaunda and Jomo Kenyatta, Sékou Touré and Felix Houphouët-Boigny inspired a generation of Africans and other colonized peoples. They encouraged high aspirations for rapid economic development and material prosperity.

President Jomo Kenyatta and Tom Mboya of Kenya lead the motorcade for Independence Day celebrations.

The Old: A Kikuyu woman votes for the first time.

The New: African leader Tom Mboya at the ballot box.



Ivoirien President Houphouët-Boigny escorting President Charles de Gaulle in Abidjan, 1958.

22

Julius K. Nyerere, President of Tanganyika (now Tanzania) on Independence Day in 1961. (His mother is at lower right).

Alhaji Sir Ahmadu Bello, K.B.E., Sardauna of Sokoto and Premier of the Northern Region. b. 1909, Rabbah, Sokoto Province, Northern Nigeria. Fulani. Great grandson of Othman Dan Fodio, founder of the Sokoto Empire. Entered politics in 1949.

Alhaji Sir Abubakar Tafawa Balewa, K.B.E., M.H.R., Prime Minister of the Federation of Nigeria. b. 1912, Bauchi Province, Northern Nigeria. Fulani. Teacher, principal, and education officer. Entered Federal politics in 1954.

Chief Obafemi Awolowo, M.H.R., Federal Leader of the Opposition, and Leader of the Action Group. b. 1909, Ikenne, Ijebu Remo, Western Nigeria. Yoruba. Admitted to English Bar, 1946. Leader of Government and Premier, Western Region, 1952-60.

The Rt. Hon. Nnamdi Azikiwe, P.C., Governor-General and Commander in Chief of the Federation of Nigeria. b. 1904, Zungeru, Northern Nigeria. Ibo. Higher education in the United States. Journalist and organizer African Continental Bank.

By the 1970s only Azikiwe remained active among the Nigerian leaders. Like Tom Mboya, the Kenyan leader who was killed by an assassin's bullet, the Nigerians were victims of civil discord. Kwame Nkrumah was overthrown as President of Ghana and died in exile. Houphouët-Boigny, Sékou Touré, Jomo Kenyatta, Julius Nyerere, and African aspirations for a better life survive.

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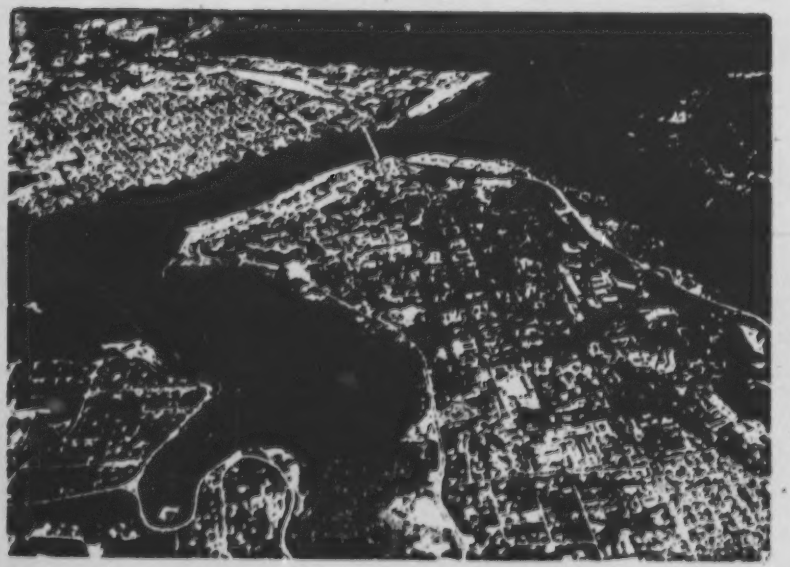
Africans waited expectantly. In great cities like Abidjan, Ivory Coast (below), and in small towns in Guinea (above), individually and collectively, Africans wanted freedom.



FREEDOM SOUGHT

Many problems facing Africa at independence were not realized. Some new leaders and international well-wishers seemed blinded by belief in the sovereignty of freedom. Slowly, often after disillusionment, Africans realized that independence did not guarantee future well-being. Governments had to face the harsh economic and social realities that remained dependent on their former colonial rulers. The economies remained interlinked. Internal disharmony threatened many countries with civil war. Different nationalistic perspectives competed. Agricultural production did not keep pace with population growth. To overcome these liabilities there was wide agreement on the necessity to industrialize. Some Africans pursued ideals for social organization which were without precedent. All sought the political, economic, and social stability which can make genuine independence possible.

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PHOTOGRAPH FOR ANALYSIS

Who? What? When? Where? Why?

1. Where was the picture taken?

2. How would you describe:

   (a) the people
   (b) the terrain, topography
   (c) the climate, weather
   (d) the vegetation
   (e) the architecture

3. What clues does the picture contain concerning:

   (a) the power and status of the people
   (b) general level of technology

4. What type event appears to be taking place?

Data: Photograph courtesy of the Information Service of the Ivory Coast. Picture was made in February 1965 at Nouakchott, capital of Mauritania. According to Field Staff Associate Victor Du Bois, "the Nouakchott Conference" was the scene of a significant new development in French-speaking Africa's search for unity when representatives from 13 countries met there February 10-12, 1965 for a major policy conference. (Victor D. Du Bois, *The Search for Unity in French-Speaking Black Africa, Part I: The Founding of the Organisation Commune Africaine et Malgache (O.C.A.M.)*, [VDB-3-'65], Fieldstaff Reports, West Africa Series, Vol. VIII, No. 3, 1965.)

I AM A WITCHDOCTOR

In my Yoruba village in Western Nigeria, a boy had died. Since I looked more like him than did anyone else, it was expected that I would wear his clothes on his birthday. As is our custom, his parents would greet me as their returning son. I got to eat all his favorite foods, and for that day, the village people treated me as if I were the other boy.

We all knew of course that this was just a ceremony. Ordinarily customs and holidays like this were fun.

But when I returned to the missionary school the next day and entered the church, there was great noise. Soon I had been chased outside. The missionary was beating me with a broom. He said, "Get out of the House of the Lord. This is not your church anymore. You are a pagan. Go back to your village and stay."

I was stunned. It was a great disappointment. I still do not understand why what I did was wrong. Nobody was hurt—except me. Why? I have not understood this for all these years.

The dream of learning to read and write and going to England and becoming a doctor—all these hopes were dissolved. So I returned to this village. The old witchdoctor liked me and taught me his skills. Look, here are my medicines. See, I have penicillin and sulfa. And these books tell me how to use them. I have the traditional medicines too. I have herbs that work in the body and stories to ease the mind. My life is dedicated to these people. I help them all I can.

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. What events changed the young African's life?
2. Why might the missionary have behaved as he did? Would you have behaved differently?
3. How would you describe the position of the witchdoctor in this African village society?
4. As the boy expelled from missionary school, what would you have done?
5. As the boy's parents, what would you have done when he returned home?
6. What are the differences between "traditional" and "modern" medicines?
7. How might the "penicillin" and "sulfa" be obtained by the witchdoctor?
   a. From classmates who became doctors?
   b. From visiting European and American doctors?
   c. From the market?
   d. From another source?
8. In your own culture, can similar events occur? If so, what are they and how?
9. If you were the person interviewing the Yoruba witchdoctor, what would you say to him?
10. Is there anything in his life that is related to your own? If so—what?

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DEATH IN BURUNDI

Did you hear?

Hear what?

About Burundi.

No. What happened there?

At least 100,000 were killed.

Oh?

Officially only 50,000.

My, my.

Maybe up to 200,000.

Well.

June 1972, Lake Tanganyika.

- MAY 2, 1972 -

RADIO BURUNDI

To all the people of the republic whose vigilance and determination have won a victory over its enemies, the imperialists, and their agents... Hunt down the "traitors to the republic wherever they may be found."

VOICE OF THE REVOLUTION

Responsibility for the incidents is with the "reactionary forces of imperialism...."

- SEPTEMBER 1972 -

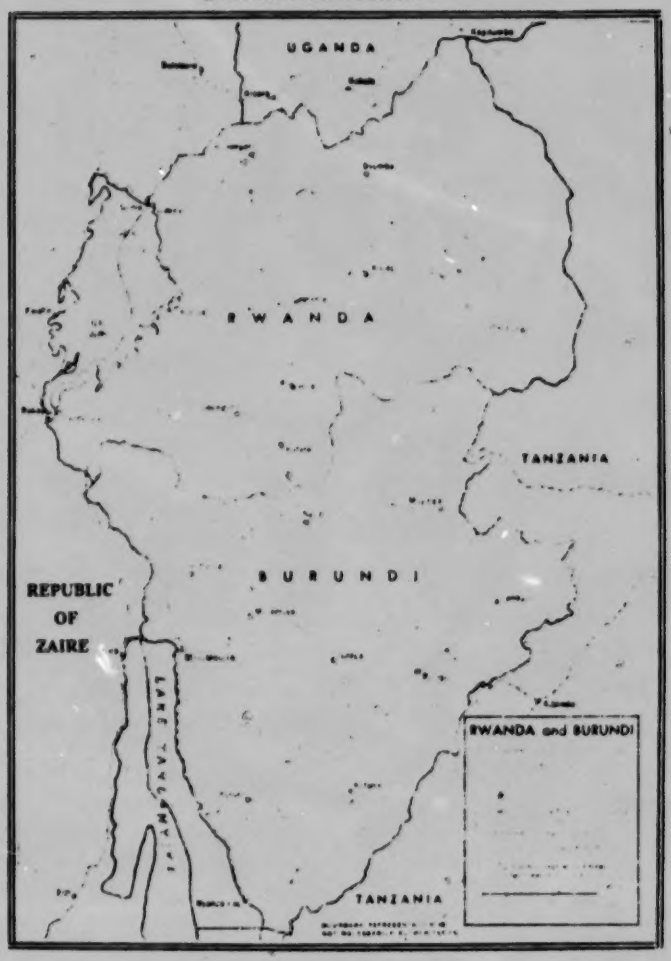
Nestled among green hills on the northeast shore of Lake Tanganyika, Bujumbura appears to be a garden. The bright colors and fragrant aromas of frangipani tree blossoms and bougainvillea soothe the visitor. Attractive buildings rise above tree lined streets.

Europeans—mostly Belgians—live in the suburban hills. Their large homes remind one of the colonial era. Burundi began the colonial period as a German territory, between 1885 and 1916. With World War I in progress, the Belgians took over the government. They administered the joint territory of Rwanda-Burundi until 1962. Since then, Burundi has had an independent government, centered in Bujumbura, the capital.

Fieldstaff Associate Victor Du Bois visited Bujumbura in September of 1972. He wrote:

> The first impression made on the traveler is one of undisturbed peace.
>
> This impression is deceptive. For in reality this is a city gripped by fear, stalked by death, and giving proof of man's inhumanity to man on a scale difficult to grasp.
>
> Tens of thousands of Burundians—men, women, children, old people—have been barbarously massacred. Government and nongovernment sources differ in their estimates. But both range between 100,000 and 200,000 people killed.

RWANDA AND BURUNDI



WHY DID IT HAPPEN AND HOW?

Three ethnic groups share the language of *Kirundi* and the land areas of *Burundi*. The pygmy Twa are the earliest known inhabitants of the land but they make up less than one per cent of the population. The Hutu settled next. These short, sturdy farming people comprise 85 per cent of the Burundian population. The tall, pastoral Tutsi settled most recently—perhaps 300 years ago. They comprise 14 per cent of the population. Approximately the same proportions of Hutu and Tutsi occur in Rwanda.

Europeans came to Central Africa to "administer" and "civilize" it. The pattern of colonial control in both territories favored the Tutsis.

Tutsi warriors over a period of years defeated the Hutu kings. The Hutu became a virtual servant class to the more militaristic Tutsi. The relationship has often been compared to those of royal and serf classes in Medieval Europe. Tutsi cattle came to be accepted by all the Africans in Burundi as the most important symbol of wealth and status.

The master/servant relationship between the Hutu and Tutsi was formalized. Hutu agreed to serve and give labor to Tutsi overlords in return for protection in times of danger. The arrangement was not entirely one-sided. Hutu subjects preserved the opportunity to gain status over time by acquiring cattle.

Hutu in Rwanda rebelled against their subservient role in 1959. The shock waves shook neighboring Burundi. In the course of the successful struggle to depose the ruling Tutsi in Rwanda, about 10,000 Tutsi were killed. Almost all the other Tutsi in Rwanda fled south into Burundi. Perhaps 60-80,000 Tutsi escaped the new Hutu-dominated government in Rwanda and enlarged the minority Tutsi population in Burundi. Embittered, these exiles dreamed of revenge. The Hutu became *the enemy.*

Both Rwanda and Burundi became independent of Belgium in 1962. Tension between Tutsi and Hutu continued to simmer. The effect of colonial rule in fact had increased the competition between the two ethnic groups. For seventy-five years the Hutu minority had been treated less favorably by colonial administrations than the more respected Tutsi rulers. Hutu were seldom given equal educational opportunities. When a job was open which would have given Africans experience in leadership, the Hutu tended to be overlooked. Hutu social mobility in independent Burundi seemed to be even less than before the Europeans had come.

The big question at the time of Burundi's independence was "Would Tutsi domination continue?" In particular, would the Tutsi monarch survive? The ruling family Mwambutsa IV, took steps to reduce the growing tension. Tutsi Prince Louis Rwagasore took a Hutu bride. He also founded a new political party which, he hoped, would appeal equally to both groups. Then, on the eve of independence, Rwagasore was assassinated. Ten years later, Burundi has not yet recovered from the inter-ethnic strife and political instability which followed that act of political terrorism.

Tutsis won control of the political party, *Union du Progres Nationale.* Hutu leaders went into exile. In 1965 Tutsi leaders named a Hutu, Pierre Ngendendumwe, as Prime Minister. A week before being officially appointed he was assassinated.

The struggle expanded into the military where both Hutu and Tutsi had formerly served as officers and troops. Hutu officers feared a Tutsi attack, so they attacked first. The king's palace was raided on October 18, 1965. Northeast of Bujumbura, Tutsi families were attacked near Muramvya. The campaign failed. Most of the Hutu officers were executed. Other prominent Hutu in Burundi were arrested as alleged supporters of a Hutu takeover. A total of 120 Hutu were executed. Thousands more were imprisoned.

King Mwambutsa IV clearly had lost control. He fled to Switzerland. Eventually he abdicated in favor of Charles Ndizeye, his eldest son. Prince Ndizeye took a new title, King Ntare V of Burundi. Following this pronouncement September 1, 1966, he selected and promoted another Tutsi, Captain Michel Micombero, to head the army's 3,000 troops.

From left to right: President Gregoire Kayibanda of Rwanda, President Sese Seko of Mobutu of Zaire, and President Michel Micombero of Burundi.

Ntare never ruled. Micombero exercised the real power. When King Ntare left Burundi on an official trip Micombero and other officers seized power in name as well as in fact. The monarchy was abolished November 28, 1966. Micombero was proclaimed president of the new Republic of Burundi. Ntare went into exile in Belgium.

In 1972 Ntare wanted to return. He waited in Uganda. President Micombero wrote assuring the ex-King he could return and live in peace. But he must refrain from any political activity. When his helicopter landed at Bujumbura, the young king and his cousin were arrested. The official explanation was that Ntare had been in contact with mercenaries in Belgium and elsewhere. The implication was that he was seeking to regain the Burundian throne.

A month later the President's Cabinet debated Ntare's fate. His death was urged only by the Tutsi members of the Cabinet. That night, President Micombero dismissed the entire Cabinet.

The next day, April 29, 1972, between 7:00 and 8:30 P.M. according to government reports, there were five attacks:

> Burundi was invaded by armed bands coming mainly from the neighboring Republic of Tanzania. They were composed for the most part of Burundians and some Zairian rebels who ravaged the eastern section of the country under the leadership of Pierre Mulele, whence their name of Mulelists. Their attacks were directed chiefly against the military camps.... Furthermore, their flag had flown for at least two days over several centers....

Another column, the Radio reported, penetrated the eastern region.

> ...Having been repulsed by our security forces, these criminals fanned out among the population, killing and massacring thousands of victims, making no distinction between men, women, children, and old people. But it was soon verified that this bloodthirsty madness was no blind stroke but rather had been directed against one of the three ethnic groups that compose the Burundian nation. All of a sudden the country was exposed to a genocide organized and prepared over a long period.... [Tutsi] one of the ethnic groups were [sic] systematically massacred and often only after the most horrible, unimaginable tortures. This genocide, which was intended to end with the overturning of established institutions, had been planned by Burundian citizens and in carrying it out it was they who distinguished themselves the most, the foreign element contributing moral, financial, and material support which those outlaws had received from certain powers.
>
> In the new order which they counted on setting up, the racial element is again shown up by the setting up of one ethnic group [Hutu] as the foundation of the new state. In short, during the last few days the Republic of Burundi had to face the bloodiest ethnic reaction whose aim was to upset the established order and to use genocide as its principal weapon.

The radio report alleged that 10,000 Hutu and others had killed 50,000 Tutsi. The government launched a counterattack on April 30, 1972. Victory was claimed almost simultaneously on all fronts.

In Bujumbura and privately some say that not more than 1,200 to 2,000 Tutsi had been killed. Could there have been large camps housing 8,000 or more Burundian rebels in Tanzania and Zaire? "Doubtful," some say. "Easily," reply others.

How could such forces enter Burundi undetected? Lake Tanganyika is patrolled by Burundian gun boats. Without planes, parachutes or vehicles, how could 8,000 move across Burundi and attack five points?

Might someone have lied?

Who?

Why?

What really happened in Burundi?

What is happening there now?

What has been done?

How has the world reacted?

TO BURUNDI FROM A FRIEND

The Presidency
The Republic of Rwanda
Kigali, Rwanda
June 16, 1972

President Michel Micombero
The Republic of Burundi
Bujumbura, Burundi

Mr. President and Dear Friend:

For the last several weeks our attention has been drawn to the difficulties which our sister Republic of Burundi is undergoing.

The few reports that have come to us—if they be true—are such as to render every human heart uneasy. The situation strikes us as serious and we understand it all the better since it is a question of a neighboring and sister Republic, with a social, economic and ethnic structure very much like our own of a few years ago.

Dear Friend: We have learned that, in addition to the difficulties caused by politicians, you have had to deal with the murder of simple folk, with the murder of school children, with the burning of foreign automobiles. All of that is counterproductive; above all if—according to the declarations of collaborators who are more malicious than human, more conspirators than African nationalists—our neighboring and sister Republic of Burundi were to pursue the path of butchery. And butchery—what purpose does that serve? The feudalists who, in our country, resolved to organize a massive and carefully organized slaughter—what good did that do them?

As you well know, the Rwandan revolution did not go so far as to massacre school children, no matter what ethnic group they belonged to. And the people so organized themselves that the adults whom the feudalists intended to liquidate were not all killed. A poor man who carries on his head a basket of manioc grown in his field, to feed his children, why should he deliberately be crushed by a Caterpillar [tractor]?

But let us leave aside all those considerations—derived nevertheless from reliable sources—and let us examine what must be done to halt a game as cynical as it is outmoded:

(a) Halt the killing: that does Africa no good or, particularly, Burundian development. We realize that that is very difficult, once the murderers have taken to the road.
(b) Keep your colleagues informed, so that eventually they may give you counsel and advice.
(c) Do not confuse foreigners with your own people—they may be of many different origins.
(d) Let no one disturb people who are not armed, save the courts; and they only in good and due form.
(e) You personally transcend the game of clansmen and regionalists, which game the foreigners love to play to fabricate a neocolonialism which will never be a success.
(f) Do not reinforce opposition that is foreign-based: that kind of opposition is at work in all the independent countries of the Third World. As you know, we have always condemned that type of opposition.
(g) Give more thought to simple folk, to people who have no defense, either economic or political. Think of the mass of the people and reorient all of Burundi's activity toward the economic, social and political development of the people.

(1) We do not wish to involve ourselves in the internal affairs of your country: this is the code of the UN and of the OAU which the Rwandan Republic respects.

(2) As a neighboring country, we give you our counsel, sound advice drawn from experience which you are acquainted with:

As a brother and a neighbor, we have thought it necessary to give you this modest advice without involving ourselves in the internal affairs of Burundi whose direction Providence has entrusted to you.

We wish that the present crisis may be brought to an end; with you do we weep for the dead; it is urgent that the living who desire peace may find it.

As for the fugitives, use clemency in such fashion that "those who wish to return in peace to their native soil" may not be disturbed.

These are the wishes which we express to Your Excellency and to your people, assuring you of our profound fraternal esteem.

The President of the Republic

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(sgd) Gr. Kayibanda

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. In the role of Burundian President Micombero what would your reaction to the letter have been?

2. What do the following news reports indicate were the actual reactions of Micombero and others?

- Friday, June 30, 1972 -

A group of 11 Burundians were students at the National University of Rwanda in Butare. Five were military men and four were civilians. Nine of the students were Tutsi and two were Hutu. On Friday, June 30, 1972, the Burundians visited Kigali. While the group was visiting a bar one of the locals called one of the Tutsi an "assassin." The Tutsi students became alarmed. Immediately they got in touch with their ambassador in Kigali, the Rwandan capital. They said their lives were in danger and asked to be repatriated at once. On July 1 the Rwandan government provided a vehicle to transport the Tutsi students to N'gozi (in Burundi) in the company of a Burundian diplomat. Significantly, the two Burundian Hutu students chose to remain in Rwanda. They were convinced that to return to their country would mean certain death.

- May 27, 1972 -

The United Nations' role was limited by two factors: (1) Burundi insisted that what was taking place was a purely internal affair; and (2) The UN membership was unwilling to engage that organization in yet another African venture which could prove as costly and difficult as its intervention in the Congo in 1960-61 to end the secession of Katanga.

On May 27, 1972, in a meeting with Burundi's Ambassador to the United Nations, Mr. Terence Nsanze, Mr. Waldheim offered his assistance. He proposed a UN aid program. Given that daily press reports related a continuing massacre of the Hutu, Mr. Waldheim felt impelled on May 31 once again to state publicly his offer to the Burundian government.

In Burundi a number of developments contributed greatly to the UN's distress. The Burundian police had requisitioned a number of UNICEF trucks in Bujumbura to gather up people who were later executed. The same trucks were used to transport their bodies to burial sites where they were dumped into mass graves. Military authorities also seized a UN fishery vessel. It had been carrying on research in Lake Tanganyika. They armed it with machine guns, and used it to patrol the lake so that Hutu refugees could not escape across the water into Zaire.

On June 22 a UN mission arrived in Bujumbura. It was headed by Mr. Issoufou Djermakoye of Niger, an Adjutant Secretary of the United Nations; Mr. Macaire Pedanou of Togo, the Regional Representative of the United Nations' High Commission for Refugees; and Mr. S.J. Homannherimberg, an Austrian diplomat. On their arrival in Bujumbura the three envoys were received by President Micombero. In an address of welcome the President lauded the magnanimity of the UN's Secretary-General, "who did not listen to those who misrepresented the events that had occurred in the Republic." President Micombero then awarded Mr. Djermakoye an honorific distinction of high rank. During the one week that the UN mission spent in Burundi it conferred with government authorities. Whether its members made any effort to discuss the situation also with members of the Hutu community, the principal victims, is not known; if such contacts were made, no public mention was ever made of them.

On July 4 Secretary-General Waldheim called a press conference in Geneva. He said that the humanitarian mission sent to Burundi had confirmed the enormous suffering there. The strife had claimed a great many victims. Although precise figures could not yet be obtained, he said that different sources estimated the number of dead between 80,000 and 200,000. These were the highest figures yet cited by anyone. In Bujumbura there was a stunned silence.

- June 2, 1972 -

The Belgian Foreign Minister, Pierre Harmel, in July invited his Burundian counterpart to Brussels. The Burundian delegation was headed by the Foreign Minister, Artemon Simbanaiye and included the Jesuit Rector of the University of Bujumbura, Father Gabriel Barakana. They arrived in Brussels on July 24 and began a series of discussions with Mr. Harmel, Mr. Pierre van Haute (the Belgian Ambassador to Burundi), and other Belgian officials. At the conclusion of these discussions, no final communique was issued by either delegation. The Belgian Foreign Minister simply described the talks as "productive"; he would say nothing more.

REFLECTIONS OF AFRICA: TARZAN

That night a little son was born in the tiny cabin beside the primeval forest, while a leopard screamed before the door, and the deep notes of a lion's roar sounded from beyond the ridge.

The year was 1913 and the boy was Tarzan. Along with books like *King Solomon's Mines* and movies such as "The African Queen," Tarzan books and movies have contributed enormously to the popular image of Africa. It is difficult to measure the influence of any single source but of the three, Tarzan probably did most to stir public imagination.

Consider a few facts about Tarzan.

1. Tarzan is the principal character in 26 novels, all of them widely available.

2. Tarzan has been translated into 31 languages.

3. Tarzan novels have sold over 50 million copies.

4. The first Tarzan film was made in 1914. There have since been 14 legitimate film Tarzans in about 40 movies grossing more than $500 million.

5. Tarzan comics began to appear in 1929. By 1942, Tarzan was appearing daily in 141 newspapers in the United States alone. On Sundays Tarzan leapt forth in full color from the pages of 156 Comic sections.

6. Tarzan has lent his name to cities—Tarzan, Texas, Tarzana, California—to sweatshirts, bubblegum, and bows and arrows. He appears in uncountable imitations—Bomba, the Jungle Boy; Tam, Son of the Tiger; George of the Jungle; Walt Disney's, The World's Greatest Athlete, and, of course, as the most liberated woman of all, Sheena, the Jungle Queen.

7. Finally, in 1932, there was a concerted, half-serious attempt in some newspapers to nominate Tarzan for president.

Certainly Tarzan, a character of fiction, cannot be blamed for initiating misconceptions about Africa and Africans. Tarzan—or the Tarzan myth—is a symptom. It expresses existing misconceptions. It is also a means of transmitting and maintaining social values and stereotypes. But Tarzan is not the cause.

Edgar Rice Burroughs was the creator of the "Ape Man." Burroughs never set foot in Africa. For him, Africa was a continent of the mind—imaginary. When he began writing, his only valid information about Africa had been obtained during his childhood. He had sketchy memories of books in which he had read about animals and Victorian adventurers who travelled in India, Asia, and Africa. The haziness of his memory is easily demonstrated. Sabor, the tiger, was one of Tarzan's companions in the early novels. There are no tigers in Africa. When someone finally pointed this fact out to Burroughs, Sabor became a lioness.

Tarzan books and films did—and to some extent still do—continue to illustrate popular beliefs about Africa. According to this image, Africa is all "jungle." It is hot, humid, pestilential. It is full of insects, reptiles, and carnivorous animals. It is inhabited by primitive, backward peoples of two types. The first and most feared are the big, tall men with spears. The second are pygmies—small, tiny men with poisoned blow darts. Everyone is half-nude or in funny, flowing robes. When they are not busy killing someone, they are inevitably employed on *safaris*. They carry heavy loads on their heads for the white hunters and explorers whom they always call "Bwana."

The Tarzan image is even more subtly racist. The lives of black Africans are never worth as much as those of Europeans. Africans are presented as being expendable. (In one tense movie scene, two white hunters edge carefully along a narrow ledge. Behind them are the African porters, each with a pack atop his head. Below them is the bottomless pit of the unknown. An African carrier slips, plunging with a scream toward an unseen death. One white man turns to the other and says, "What was in that *pack*, Parker?").

Europeans appear only as masters. Africans are either wild men in the jungle or servants of the whites. To his credit, Burroughs does present both good and evil in white and black. But the scale is definitely tipped in favor of whites. Europeans are the "civilizers," Africans the "children" to be civilized. Africans are primitive, savage, and black. Only Tarzan is a *noble* savage, and he is white, the son of Lord Greystoke.

Background to the Tarzan Myth

Black Africans, in the not too distant past, were believed to be a people hardly human. The African continent was to a great extent a mystery. It was separated from Europe and the Americas by treacherous seas of desert and ocean. Even those travelers who came to Africa's shores seldom saw more than the coast. Africa's isolation brought forth legends about ape-like men, bearded monsters, and, in the words of one ancient account, of "men whose heads do grow beneath their shoulders."

New technology gradually eroded Africa's isolation. But the image of the "Dark Continent" remained, forbidding inquiry. It was reinforced by the extraordinarily high death rate among Europeans who went to Africa.* Sierra Leone became famous as "The White Man's Grave." Such a negative image of Africa was further complicated by two more factors. One was the growth and acceptance of "pseudo-scientific racism." The other was the social implications of slavery in the New World.

Pseudo-scientific Racism

Between the 1840s and the 1940s, this type of racism dominated European and North American thought about Africans. One product of the Industrial Revolution had been a blind faith in "science"—that body of knowledge which was supposed to be rationally derived from empirical observation. It invoked science to bolster the belief that race determined ability and intelligence. Dr. Robert Knox, a doctor in Edinburgh, Scotland, was the most influential spokesman. In a book entitled *The Races of Man* he declared, "Race is everything; literature, science, art—in a word, civilization depends on it." According to Knox, the dark-skinned peoples of the world were the first to evolve. But they soon reached their maximum development, and then stagnated. Light-skinned people evolved later and developed "civilization." Although Knox thought that dark-skinned peoples would eventually become extinct, he felt that they remained a threat to "civilization" until that time.

Darwin's theories reinforced and extended Knox's racist error. Darwinism appeared to give Knox even more scientific support: superior races were marked by their superiority. To most people, this superiority meant technical achievement. Steam engines and steel mills were contrasted to Africa's subsistence agriculture. The difference was offered as proof of Africa's inferiority.

Slavery

For several centuries, most white contact with black Africans was through slavery. North and South Americans and Europeans bought, sold, and owned slaves. They came to associate African

*Before the discovery of quinine as a treatment for malaria, many Europeans in Africa died either from Malaria or its complications.

physical characteristics—skin color, hair texture—with the African way of life in Africa and the status of slavery in the Americas. The condition of slavery was an inferior one. It followed that those who were enslaved were also inferior. Slaves, however, were also black. The inferior status of slavery—a social judgment—was extended to include all black people, whether free or enslaved. Blinded as they were by belief in technology as a measure of superiority, Americans and Europeans frequently judged that Africans had "no ingenious manufactures among them, no arts, no sciences."

Changing Attitudes

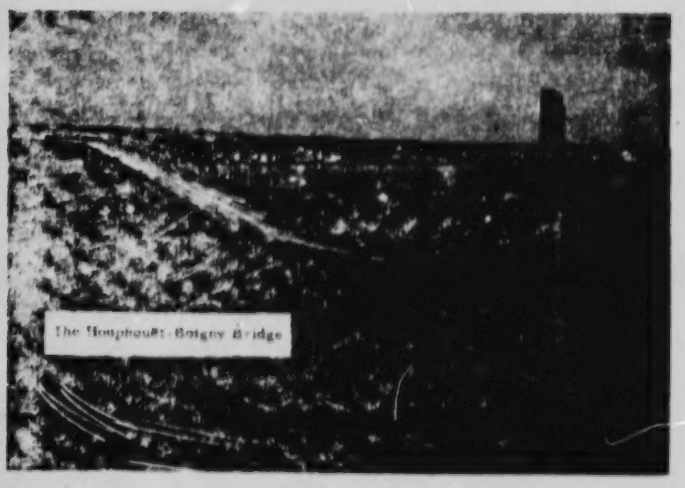
Since the early 1940s, many of these old beliefs have begun to die. Africans and people of African descent have made forceful assertions of their cultural equality. At the same time, Americans and Europeans no longer see one's level of technology as the sole measure of civilization. In fact many question the materialism of our civilization. The relative value of the spirit and mind is being reconsidered. There is new interest in African and Eastern religions, in art, and in the role of the senses.

New discoveries in medicine, for example, have also placed some historical events in proper perspective. One of the reasons that blacks had been favored as slaves was their apparent ability to survive in the tropical New World. Europeans died of fevers—native Americans died of European diseases. Scientists only recently understood the mechanisms of differential mortality.

Africans had acquired resistance to both endemic African diseases and those of Europe. The indigenous peoples of the New World had no resistance to either. Europeans died of African diseases in adulthood because that was usually when they had first contact. Africans, with some exceptions, succumbed to the same diseases in similar numbers *but in infancy*. Africans often had another survival advantage, the sickle-cell trait. Sickle-cell trait tends to develop in areas where malaria is endemic. It has the effect of protecting against the disease but it may also cause sickle-cell anemia. In Africa, most victims of sickle-cell anemia also die during childhood. Thus a whole set of beliefs about Africans which underlay the rationale for enslaving them was based on scientific, not to mention moral,

error. But to the people in the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries, it *appeared* to be true. Today we have the tools, and the will, to show them false.

Examples illustrating the destruction of old myths could be multiplied one hundredfold. Tarzan will, in one guise or another, no doubt continue to swing from bookshelf to newstand and from movie screen to television set. He is *the superhero.* He shares the stage with Mickey Mouse, Frankenstein and his Monster, Superman, and James Bond. He has appealed to every stratum of society. From illiterate to literate, from low to high income, Tarzan has fired imaginations. It is even rumored that Emperor Haile Selassie of Ethiopia has his own collection of Tarzan films. Whether high born or low, audiences in the future will begin to relegate Tarzan to his proper place—not in Africa but in the continent of the mind.



Abidjan, Ivory Coast.

QUESTIONS FOR CONSIDERATION

1. How and why do stereotypes arise?
2. Do stereotypes conform with reality?
3. Are stereotypes always bad?
4. How can one evaluate popular stereotypes about Africa or elsewhere without personal observation?
5. What has been the strongest influence on your image of Africa?

Street scene—Freetown, Sierra Leone.

ANA ABDELKRIM: NORTH AFRICAN DESERT BOY

A Story of the Moroccan Sahara

by Stuart H. Schaar

There was no route to follow, just a trail which disappeared every few yards only to reappear in unlikely spots. First the dunes rose, then the terrain became pebbly, then as hard as concrete. Rocks emerged, endless rocks of all sizes and shapes. Suddenly I spotted a child sitting on one of them. He waved. I stopped. Smiling as he approached, he introduced himself: "Ana Abdelkrim, M'sieu. Ana Abdelkrim."

He was small, possibly eleven. His hair was dusty and uncombed, but it mattered little. This solitary boy was a striking figure. The two sweaters he wore covered a worn shirt, frayed and blackened at the collar. Two pairs of baggy trousers girded his waist. The outer pair attached to suspenders, kept the inner ones aloft. His dark blue suit jacket—a luxury in the Saharan summer—was three sizes too big for him, as were his mauve-colored shoes.

"I'm going south. Will you take me with you?" he asked. His smile widened. His eyes were bright and they seemed to grow bigger as he stuck his head through the open car door. His sharp features, turned bronze by the sun, were perfectly set in his face. His thick eyebrows, which perched high above the crown of his nose, drew out the mischief in his eyes. His lips were just right too, opening onto a glittering set of teeth. I laughed and nodded agreement. In he climbed, making sure to remove his shoes before he closed the door.

I began talking to him in Arabic. Although his native tongue was Berber, he had picked up enough Arabic in his travels to get by, and a smattering of French words as well.

"Where are you from, oh Abdelkrim?"

"Algeria."

"How did you get here?"

"Across the dunes."

"When?"

"I was six."

"But how did you come?"

"They killed mama, papa...."

"Where?"

"Colomb-Béchar....I came on a camel."

"But how?"

"A man let me sit on top."

"And what do you do, oh Abdelkrim?"

"I sit...I wait...I wander."

"Where do you sleep?"

"Anywhere."

"What do you eat?"

"Anything."

"Do you work?"

"Sometimes the shepherds let me guard sheep."

"Where are you heading now?"

"M'fiss."

"What do you do there?"

"They give me a shovel, I find gold."

"What do you do with it?"

"A man gives me bread."

"Have you any friends, Abdelkrim?"

"M'sieu, ya m'sieu, ana miskeen. Andi walo."

The Arabic was meaningful. Ordinarily the word *miskeen* means "poor," "miserable," "humble,"

"submissive," "servile," "a beggar"—and sometimes all of these at once. But the undertone of pain in Abdelkrim's voice signified much more, something like "mister, hey mister, I'm the dog you kick, the scum you abhor, the bitch that wallows in her stinking milk." After that *andi walo*, "I have nothing and no one," followed naturally. Abdelkrim had only the ragged oversize clothes that he wore.

* * * * *

Abdelkrim came to the Moroccan desert five years ago as part of a small caravan escaping from the horrors of the Algerian war. He had been six when the paratroopers came dressed in leopard spots and green berets. They cut down his family's tent, machine-gunned papa, raped mama, killed her, cut her into pieces, and stole off with his sisters, Laila and Fatima, leaving Abdelkrim screaming into the empty night.

He escaped miraculously. How? Either he did not know or he refused to tell. But somehow, some lucky day, he begged his way out of that nightmare of war onto the back of a camel. Now all that he wanted to remember from that dim past, filled with blood and violence, was his camel ride across desert sands into freedom. Freedom was a camel's ride away from grotesque memories. It was the liberty to roam haphazardly without caring about the morrow.

One grows up quickly as a desert scavenger, grubbing for survival amidst a sea of sand. Other worlds cease to exist, if they had any meaning to start with. Subsistence becomes an abiding preoccupation, a continuous tormenting theme. But the desert, with all its barrenness, is generous to those who know it well and respect its laws. The desert rewards disciples just as it kills belligerent strangers.

Abdelkrim was a child of the desert. The only home he ever knew was the sand and the shade of the dunes. He knew all the stars by heart, and the sun and moon were his constant companions, objects of adoration, never of fear. He knew all the watering spots between Rissani and Taouz, and he knew the months, the days, even the hours, when the shepherds would arrive with their flocks. The meaner ones he had learned to avoid long ago. When he was far from water he would live on grass and lizards, or the bread offered by passing nomads in return for his labor as a shepherd.

Now and then a truck driver would carry him to M'fiss where he would work in the abandoned gold mines, picking nuggets out of the rock in return for some *shurba*, the thick soup he loved so much, and soft white *khubs*, the kind of bread that only city people ate. But his body always ached when he worked at this digging, and invariably he would run back to the refuge of the desert.

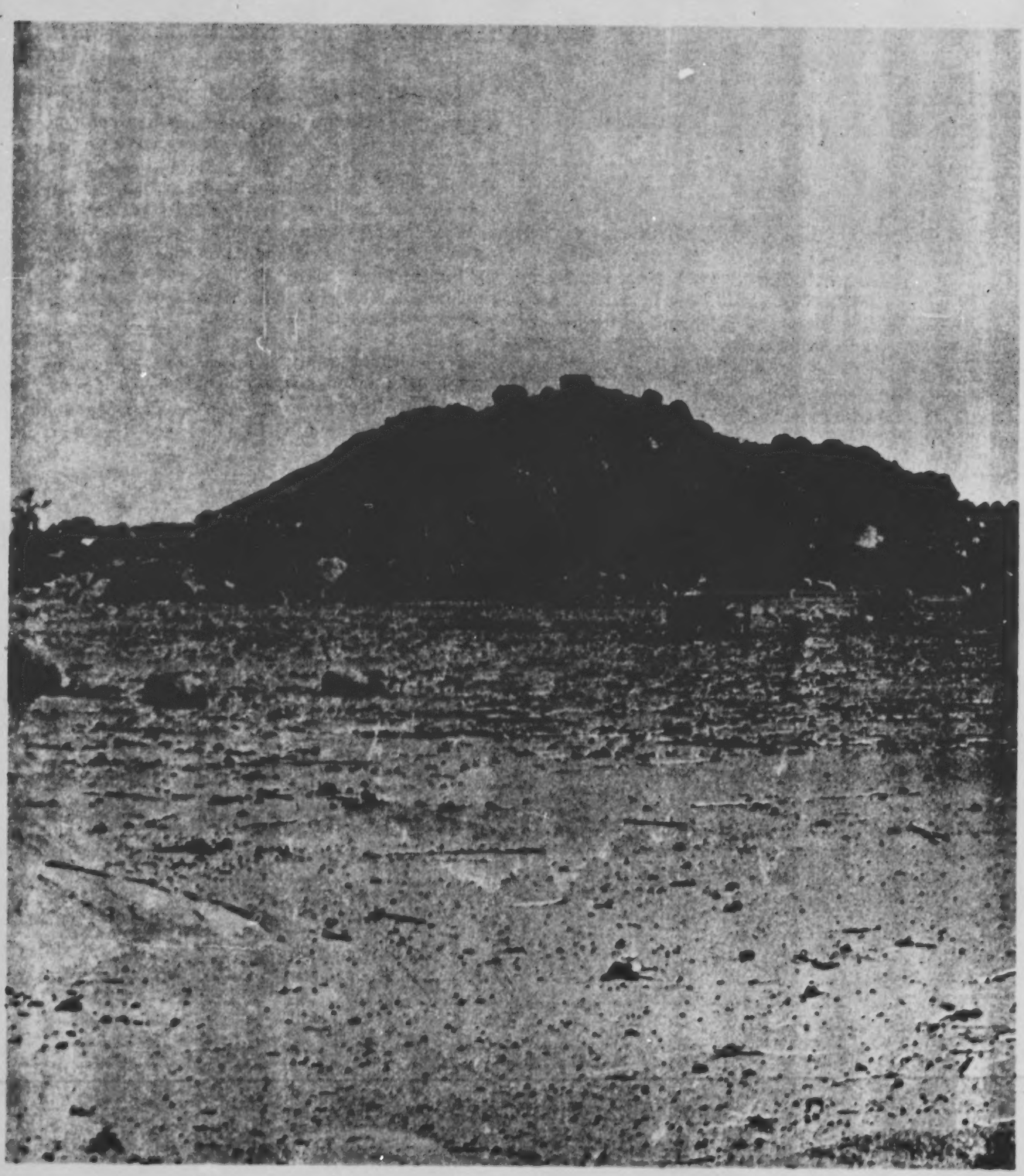
At times he would hurl himself over the dunes and scream in the dark, listening to the echoes vibrating through the dust and sky and watching his shadow dancing over the hills. When his voice quavered and when he shivered in the cold night air, he would kneel down and whisper to Allah, knowing that the sounds would carry far into the still distance. When he grew weary of his games, or when his hunger got the best of him, he would wait at the crossroads of the Sahara until some strangers arrived who would dispose of him as they wished. He followed anyone in return for bread and water.

* * * * *

By now it was dark. The dunes had risen up and cut off the road. We were stuck six miles from Taouz, unable to pass. Both of us jumped out of the car and began digging our way down to the hard layer of caked sand beneath the tires. Abdelkrim stopped suddenly, scrutinized the situation, then ran off. After about fifteen minutes he returned carrying an armful of sticks which he began to insert methodically under the tires. He panted all the while, breathless from his mission. It worked. Back we drove northwards.

Along the way I planned Abdelkrim's future: "Take him back to Rabat. Send him to school. Get him squared away. Give him the 'chance,' the kind of chance that the Arabs always say *insha'allah* for, fatalistically and believingly." But my fantasies ended as reality emerged ahead in the form of two more hitchhikers, this time a couple of local yokels who worked now and then in the mines, digging out lead for a pittance. We picked them up, and they sat next to Abdelkrim in the back of the car and smoked cheap, smelly cigarettes. They offered one to my little friend who lit it immediately. I looked around, saw him puffing on it, and without thinking snatched it away from his lips. "You're still too young to smoke," I scolded. A guilty smile filled his face.

I stared ahead then and wondered about what I had just done. My reflexes were so out of tune with



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the setting. What do "old" and "young" mean to someone like Abdelkrim—*miskeen*, alone, without anything but the clothes on his back? Was Abdelkrim really a child? Yet, could one call him a man at eleven? What sense did all of this make of our rules of logic? Perhaps we need a new logic for the likes of Abdelkrim. Only our arrival in Erfoud stopped me from lighting a new cigarette for him.

I had told him that I would take him as far as Erfoud, the first substantial town after the desert. His eyes had lit up with excitement, for he had been to Erfoud once before and "it was such a big place." He had eaten well there and met a friend his own age. Erfoud—that dusty, fly-ridden, twopenny town—was Abdelkrim's New York.

And so we stood facing each other in the middle of Erfoud square. I gave him five francs, shook his hand, and said good-bye. Little wet drops formed in the corners of his eyes as he stared at me. Then he turned away and gaited off. I couldn't move. I had to do something for him.

"Abdelkrim!" I shouted after him. He ran back. Together we went to a Jew's shop hidden in a row of stalls. We searched through open boxes until we found just the thing for him—a warm woolen shirt. By now tears were wetting his bronze face, but he didn't know what to say. Neither did I. He put the shirt on over his sweaters and it fit perfectly. It also rounded out the jacket and made it only two sizes too big for him. I stared at him, held him by the shoulders, and whispered, "May Allah preserve you, oh Abdelkrim."

Now and then I think of that solitary figure and see his shadow moving somewhere between Taouz and M'fiss. Now he stops, then he starts again, moving over the sand, as if he belonged there and only there.

MIKE
THE CITY LIFE OF RURAL MALES

Each week in Kenya hundreds of young people—school leavers mostly—are departing the rural areas. They make their way to the big city.

Mike is a Public Works Clerk during the day. He shares a flat with his brother and two other males of his age from the same rural area. He is relatively lucky. Often six or seven people live in a tiny apartment or even one room.

The thoughtful guests bring food to share. Still the meals are often light because budgets are light. In the city all one's food must be bought—there is no room where they live for a garden.

About 6:15 A.M. Mike awakens. He then washes, and dresses for work. His toilet is outside and semiprivate. During the rainy season it becomes inconvenient and uncomfortable. The neighbors sometimes let their sanitary habits fall below standard.

He is fastidious about hygiene and dress. Mike calls it getting "smart." When ready he sips some tea and dashes out the door for the bus station. On hurried mornings he may munch buttered toast while jogging to the bus stop.

Mike's work day begins at 8:15 A.M. Usually he arrives earlier. With erratic bus service one must begin early and hope for the best. In three years he has not been late for work.

Morning ends at 12:45 which begins the lunchtime break. Everyone departs from the office and enjoys the social activity. Food by comparison is of secondary importance. Workers meet friends and discuss politics and football or soccer. Lunch often consists of a coke or milk with a meat pie or sugar bun. Window shopping and observing people playing checkers are popular pastimes during the 75-minute lunch break. Age-mates—who are presumed to share a special bond—may walk around holding hands. Such open displays of affection among people of the same sex are customary in much of Africa. There are no negative connotations.

At 2 P.M. the work day continues. Most governmental offices remain open until 4:30 P.M. Then the rush to the bus station begins. The tensions of the day are released.

In the evening Mike does his laundry. Because he has so few clothes, he must wash and iron every day in order to look "smart" at work. Lacking a refrigerator, he also has to shop every day for food. These chores accomplished, Mike may spend a few hours with friends.

The big city.

Mixed feelings about the city.

Pay day is the last day of the month. Mike often celebrates by going to a movie, a dance, or a trip to the local tavern. Beer is the most popular drink in East Africa. And Mike, like most Africans, likes his served by the liter and warm. It is a night of modest pleasure in a sober life.

* * * * *

This rural exodus, of which Mike is a part, brings with it a host of social problems. These trouble not only government officials but the rural and urban communities as well. "How," officials are asking themselves, "can rural areas be made more attractive to the young people who now flee to the cities?"

Even when answers to this problem are available, sufficient financial support may not be.

George Jones of the Institute of Current World Affairs recently interviewed a cross-section of young people in Nairobi, Kenya, East Africa. He concluded, "that the attractions of the city are similar the world over. The adventures, the wide range of entertainment, the potential market for finding a companion or mate and the possibility of making the fast shilling are certainly attractive forces for any rural youngster—especially after he hears the story of the city as told by some of his more 'seasoned' friends."

None of the interviewees was born in the city and they insist that they are not Nairobi residents. They have been "away" an average of five years. Yet their allegiance and ties remain with the family back home—in spirit, if not physically. On holidays they return "home" to the farm. They look forward to "a good home-cooked meal" and often their families prepare food packages for them to bring back to the city. Each interviewee was an employed male between 21 and 25 years of age. Many, many school leavers remain unemployed.

When asked about the difference in the people with whom they come in contact most answer that people "back home" take "a personal interest in their welfare." Of the people they meet in the city,

"no one seems to care" except perhaps those with whom they live closely in the urban setting.

"All of these young men reported that they would someday like to return to the farm. Many felt the city was moving at a pace far too rapid for them to join in. They all felt their wages to be sorely out of balance with the cost of living. Food, housing, clothing, and occasional entertainment"—mostly movies—consumed their salaries. Another portion is sent "home" each month. It helps with the on-going expenses of the "farm" and is expected. The city brothers' income helps pay the school fees of younger sisters and brothers. It works out that having gone to the city, "one can never amass enough capital at any given time to return home financially secure."

Though these young men have worked about five years, none has been able to save enough money to buy an automobile. They use the bus and other public transportation to get to work. During leisure they travel by bicycle.

Chris, a clerk, and Arthur, an apprentice, say that if they are to return to rural life it must provide more leisure time. To guarantee farmers at least a subsistence income, they feel the government might consider subsidizing farm wages. Arthur hopes someday to study in the United States.

Julius feels the long working hours of rural life provide satisfactions. "All the sweat that comes," he says, "goes for a good cause, me and my family." He remembers a typical day on the farm. At 6 A.M. the family sits down to a light breakfast of tea, bread, and porridge. Afterwards the women and girls clear away the breakfast dishes. Then they began preparation of the next meal. Boys help their father milk and tend the cattle. Once these chores are completed the family, except for the very old, move to the fields. Labor is divided so that men prepare the soil. Women plant and pull weeds. Children of 6 and older watch the cattle. Soon it is time for some of the children to go to school. They will return later to assist again in the daily work cycle.

Nursing babies are strapped to their mothers' backs while field work is done. At feeding time the baby is simply shifted to the front and mother continues her work. One hears few cries. The babies apparently enjoy the motion and closeness.

Just before sunset, the field work ends. Cows are again milked and fed. The evening meal is prepared. It is the day's largest. Typical foods include *ugali*, similar to hominy grits, or *irio*, a mixture of maize, beans, potatoes, and a green vegetable. Other foods are likely to be vegetables, sweet potatoes, arrowroots and fruit. Oranges, mangoes, and bananas are all popular.

Supper begins around 9 P.M. Afterwards the family visits with other families in the area. They talk politics and then rush home. Following a good night's sleep the routine will begin again—tomorrow.

Talking is an institution in the lives of these rural Africans. No matter how strenuous the day's work, at night neighbors and village councils are willing to sit around and discuss their affairs.

Sundays are special in farm life. They involve church, trips around the countryside, and hours of talk. Many ride a bus to the nearest city. They take furniture, strapped atop the bus, to relatives. Bicycles are tied on to be used on arrival in the city. And riders find themselves surrounded by clucking chickens and fresh vegetables. In a word, the Sunday buses are crowded.

When one lives in the city it is customary for unexpected guests to arrive. They may stay a day or two. Some remain for months at a time. Relatives have been known to appear at the door with suitcase in one hand and a bed in the other. A traditional host wouldn't even raise an eyebrow.

It can be annoying but the good city host must not show impatience. While one's savings are being drained and one's food eaten, a host smiles. It is an obligation to treat one's guests well.

The city offers people more than a variety of social activities. Sam, an apprentice accountant, feels that the intellectual life in Nairobi is more stimulating than in rural areas. "Most of our parents," he said, "completed their education at Standard IV [4th grade]. Most of my friends and age mates have completed Form IV [high school]." Sam also complains that education in the rural areas is impractical. They teach "white collar" subjects, he says. They should be teaching about advanced farming techniques, animal husbandry, plumbing, and other technical subjects. Sam is pleased that the Kenyan government is beginning to change the curriculum. But it will take time, he acknowledges.

The topic of education recurs frequently in all the interviews. George Jones asked, "What advice will you give your children in order for them to be successful in life?" The answers all were the same: "Get as much education as possible." They also would advise their children to maintain some ties to the land.

Mike and his mates all see themselves as part of Kenya's transformation from a traditional to a modern society. They are ambitious. They are interested in furthering 'Africanization of the business sector. But they also want to preserve some of the traditional values. The land still has a strong grip on their emotions.

George Jones asked a single question to end the interview: "What individual has most influenced your life?" The unanimous answer was Mzee Jomo Kenyatta, the President of Kenya.

The morning rush.

Solitude.

AHMADOU: RURAL TO URBAN MIGRANT
FROM UPPER VOLTA TO THE IVORY COAST

I met Ahmadou through a real-estate agent. Madame, the agent, was in her sixteenth year "in the colonies." I was looking for a combination cook and houseboy. She said I would have no trouble finding one.

She cautioned me to be careful about whom I hired. Abidjan was full of thousands of migrant Africans. These "shiftless" people flocked here from the Ivoirien hinterland. Some even came from neighboring countries hoping to find work. I assured Madame that I would heed her warning. As I started to leave her office she called after me. "Maybe," she said, "I can find someone for you right away."

Opening the wide glass doors on the street side of her office, Madame stepped out on the balcony. She shouted to an African, one of a group sitting under a tree below. "*Lansana!*" she shrilled. "*Lansana, viens ici!*" "Come here!" The Africans instantly stopped talking. A man of about thirty-five, in dirty work clothes, detached himself from the group and looked up. "*Oui, Madame?*" "Yes, Madame?" he replied. "*Viens ici tout de suit!*" "Come here immediately!" Madame commanded with authority Lansana seemed to respect.

He bolted up the stairs. In a moment he was standing before us. Madame did not bother with introductions. Working-class Africans are seldom formally introduced to anyone. To most "Europeans" and other whites and Africans of any status, common laborers exist only to do one's bidding. Their status is so low that few would even think of the simple courtesy of a handshake, or a "thank you."

"Lansana," Madame began, "Monsieur is a professor—*un americain*. He is looking for a cook. *Tu connais quelqu'un?*" "Do you know someone?" He did know someone—right downstairs. The prospect was one of those to whom he had been talking. "Go down and get him and tell him to come up here at once!" Madame ordered. "*Oui, Madame,*" said Lansana and back down the stairs he ran.

On returning Lansana was accompanied by another man. This African was older, dignified, and neatly dressed. The vertical scars on both sides of his face identified him as a Mossi from the Upper Volta. Madame flashed a quick smile. She was pleased. The Mossi are known as hard workers and enjoy a good reputation all over West Africa.

But when Madame turned to the two Africans she was all sternness. Again there were no introductions. "*Comment t'appelles-tu?*" "What is your name?" she demanded. The older man replied. His name was Ahmadou Konate. "*Comment?*" inquired Madame. She had not caught the name. "Ahmadou Konate," he repeated.

Madame treated me to another smile. "They have such funny names," she remarked, obviously amused. I had heard him perfectly well and said, "I believe his name is Ahmadou Konate." Madame ignored my effort. "*Tu es Mossi?*" "Are you a Mossi?" she continued. "*Oui, Madame,*" the man replied. "*Tu sais faire la cuisine?*" He assured her that he knew how to cook and pulled from his pocket a tattered but carefully folded letter which he gave her.

Holding the letter at a distance as if it were some foul object, Madame glanced at it for a moment. Then it was handed to me. The letter had apparently been written by Mr. Konate's former employer, an American diplomat. It ended reassuringly with the phrase "...an excellent cook, good worker, and of high moral character." Mr. Konate had been the diplomat's employee for two years. His salary had been 18,000 francs, about $72 a month. I asked if he would work for me at the same salary on a month's trial basis. He replied that he would.

Before we could leave, Madame wagged her finger at Konate. In severe schoolmistress tones she proclaimed rather than asked, "*Tu n'es pas voleur, hein?*" "You are not a thief, are you?" For a second a glint of hate seemed to come into Mr. Konate's eyes. But then he looked at Madame and assured her he was not a thief.

At the door Madame favored me with a final smile. Konate she admonished: "I'll be keeping my eye on you. I watch all the help I hire." Later when I apologized to Mr. Konate for the humiliating question about his honesty, he shrugged his

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UPPER VOLTA
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FRENCH TERRITORY OF THE AFARS AND ISSAS
PORTUGUESE GUINEA
GUINEA
SIERRA LEONE
IVORY COAST
GHANA
DAHOMEY
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ETHIOPIA
LIBERIA
CAMEROON
CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC
SOMALIA
RIO MUNI
UGANDA
KENYA
GABON
CONGO
ZAIRE
RWANDA
BURUNDI
TANZANIA
ZANZIBAR
ANGOLA
ZAMBIA
MALAWI
SOUTH WEST AFRICA
RHODESIA
MOZAMBIQUE
MADAGASY REPUBLIC
BOTSWANA
SWAZILAND
SOUTH AFRICA
LESOTHO

How are these scenes a part of Ahmadou's world?

A typical shanty in old Adjamé.

Adjamé street scene in the morning hours.

shoulders. "Oh, I'm used to that," he said. "The white *patrons* often ask it before hiring an African."

Over the next few weeks, we gradually came to know each other. A touchy issue was how to address Mr. Konate. He was older so I felt uncomfortable using his first name. I knew he would never call me by mine.

Finally I decided the best way to solve the problem was just to ask him which name he preferred. "Call me Ahmadou," he said. "I know it is your custom to call people by their first names." He never used my first name or even my last name. To him I was simply "Monsieur," just as the lady I had gone to see about an apartment was "Madame." The young lady down the hall was "Mademoiselle." In Ahmadou's world of the domestic servant one never called one's *patron* anything else. A simple "*Oui, Monsieur*" or "*Oui, Madame*" usually answered any request or command. The whites for whom Ahmadou had worked and whose daily lives he had witnessed, lived in a world remote from his own. For all its nearness, this was a glittering world, unfriendly, and unattainable. His only contact with whites was as a servant or an employee. A person of Ahmadou's station never knew such people as friends.

Being my cook and houseboy is a full-time job. Ahmadou works from eight in the morning until one in the afternoon. He then takes four hours for a lunch and rest at home and returns to work until nine in the evening or such time as the dinner dishes have been washed and put away. After that he returns home to Adjamé. It and Treichville are the main "African" quarters of Abidjan.

Geographically, Adjamé is less than a mile from the neighborhood where I live. But socially and economically it is in another world. It is a part of the city where few tourists go. Nor does it appear on travel posters for the Ivory Coast. There are few wide boulevards or tree-shaded villas here. Except for a handful of French who live in secluded pockets and Lebanese merchants who live above their stores along Adjamé's main street, the neighborhood is African. Few streets are paved. Open sewers run alongside, relatively clean in some places, debris-clogged elsewhere.

Most Adjamé houses are made of mud or of concrete blocks. The roofs are rusty corrugated iron. Water and indoor plumbing are rare. Few houses have electricity. Adjamé people rely on the public water pumps in every second block. They have long since learned to ignore the stench of public toilets.

During the day, Adjamé is ablaze with colors. There is an atmosphere of a bazaar. Along the streets petty merchants hawk their wares. Notions, sun glasses, cheap plastic toys, and gaudy wristwatches are offered to passers-by. Thousands of women sit along the sidewalks. Some hold a nursing child with one hand while the other tends the stock of kola nuts, mangoes, bananas, and oranges in basins propped firmly between the legs. Hundreds of young boys sell cigarettes of every brand. Tailors, their Singer sewing machines sputtering like machine guns, offer ready-made

shirts and trousers. Cars, trucks, and bicycles choke the streets crowded with people. The din of traffic blends into the overall clamor of the tens of thousands of shouting, waving, and laughing Africans moving slowly along the sidewalks.

Unlike the European quarter, Adjamé has few street lights. At night it is lighted by candles and lanterns. From small shabby bars come the monotonous, vibrant musical strains of high life. In front of some houses along the back streets, young women wait for the evening's business to start, but there are few customers. For most African workingmen the fees are too high. Besides, there is a good deal of noncommercialized promiscuity.

Ahmadou is married and has two small children, a boy of two and a girl of three. Although he is a Muslim Ahmadou does not anticipate ever taking another spouse. His religious beliefs would permit him to have four wives. He says his wife Fanta "would never stand for it—and, besides, that's the old way." If he did want to take a second and third wife, Ahmadou would probably have to return to his native Upper Volta or go to another neighboring country to do it. The Ivory Coast government enacted a new *Code Civil* in 1964. All forms of marriage are outlawed except monogamy.

Home for Ahmadou is a small one-room *appartement* divided by a flimsy partition. One side of the room serves as a bedroom for Ahmadou, his wife and the two children. The other side is a small sitting room. The dwelling is one of ten in a compound shared by about 40 residents. The compound is built around a courtyard about 30 feet long and 20 feet wide. Here Ahmadou's wife and the other women do family cooking, washing, and other household chores. There is no running water and no bathroom. A single outdoor toilet on one side of the courtyard serves all the inhabitants. It is a simple cistern deeply embedded in the earth. It is emptied about twice a year. Compound residents have rigged a makeshift shower stall enclosed by

Razing of old buildings in preparation for the building of a new community in Adjamé. How is this scened related to Ahmadou's past, present, and future?

One of the new housing developments in Adjamé. The government hopes eventually to provide all of its citizens with pleasant, low-cost housing of this sort. How does this housing contrast with Ahmadou's?

boards. Here they bathe. Each person brings water from one's own barrel.

For these quarters Ahmadou paid 4,000 francs, roughly $16, a month in 1965. His house is typical of the vast majority of urban dwellings in the Ivory Coast. And as elsewhere, rent and food costs have increased steadily.

The lack of proper facilities disposing of human waste, flies and other disease-carrying insects, and the absence of hygienic habits among many of the people make all the compound residents easy prey to disease. They can seek help at the dispensaries built by the government in Abidjan. But these are not always satisfactory. One may wait in line for hours. And one does not always get the attention of a doctor, only that of a medical assistant. So when Ahmadou's wife recently fell ill, he asked me for an advance of 2,000 francs, $8, to take her to a private physician. Though doctors are expensive, one can have confidence in them, he explained: "*Ils sont des diplomes.*" "They have medical diplomas."

Ivoirien President Houphouet-Boigny has promised his people that he will replace the slum areas with decent low-cost housing. Much progress has already been made, but the housing problem in Ivory Coast is acute. Many are housed in makeshift shelters. Accommodations meant to house three to four persons are sheltering ten to twelve—and on a permanent basis.

Nevertheless, the Ivoirien government is attacking the problem with determination and with as many resources as it can spare. It has launched an ambitious housing program designed to meet the needs of people in lower-income groups. The new

houses are simple but pleasant in design and provide the luxuries of electricity, running water, and indoor toilets. These houses are made available at modest rents—about what Ahmadou pays for his present dwelling. Like many other heads of households, Ahmadou has applied for such a house. But the waiting list is long and he has no idea when his turn will come.

What worries Ahmadou most, however, is the steadily rising cost of living in the Ivory Coast. It is one of the highest in Africa. Food is the most expensive item in the household economy. Once a month he buys a 120-pound bag of rice. It is the staple of the family's diet. Each day he gives his wife money to buy meat, manioc, corn, or bananas to supplement the family's meals. He buys coal which his wife uses to do the cooking. There is no running water in the house, so every other day Ahmadou buys a large barrel of water. It is delivered to his home and used for drinking, cooking, laundry, and bathing. When asked why his wife did not draw water from the public pump, Ahmadou said it was because the closest pump was two blocks away. This was too far for a woman to carry a heavy load of water. Moreover, she would probably leave him if he insisted on it. "A woman is not a slave," he observed, "and she must not be treated as one."

Each month Ahmadou makes a payment on a used motorbike. He bought it on the installment plan two months ago. The cost of living is so high in Abidjan that he has very little left to save by the time the end of the month rolls around. What little he does have is kept locked in a box hidden somewhere in his house.

Ahmadou's expenses do not permit him to send much money to his relatives in the Upper Volta. About once every six months, however, he receives a letter, sometimes a telegram. He is requested to send money home. He does his best to comply with these requests. He knows that his relatives would not ask him for money unless they were truly desperate.

Like other Mossi who have come to work in the Ivory Coast, Ahmadou still feels fondly toward the Upper Volta. But he has no intention of going back until his children are grown up or he is too old to work. "Life is hard there," he says. "The land is not rich as it is here. Often the earth does not yield enough for everyone to eat. That is why I and many others left." Three of his brothers live in the Ivory Coast. Two others are in Ghana.

Once a year Ahmadou returns to the Upper Volta to visit family. And on such occasions he takes each relative a present bought in Abidjan: A loincloth or bolt of cloth will do for the women. And perhaps some tobacco or sandals for the men. For the children there are little plastic toys that come in the huge boxes of Helio Soap Powder. Asked why we had so many big boxes of Helio around my apartment, Ahmadou assured me it was because he wanted to keep my clothes clean.

Ahmadou usually stays a month in the Upper Volta. His wife does not accompany him for she is a Guinean. When Ahmadou is away she visits her own family. Ahmadou usually manages to purchase three or four sheep or goats. These will be tended by relatives and become part of the family's common property. In Ahmadou's life they provide a sort of insurance. Something to fall back on in case of illness or when he is too old to work anymore. He hopes the flocks will increase and he will be a "wealthy" man.

Living conditions are made worse for Ahmadou and others by the steady stream of newcomers to Abidjan. Thousands migrate to Abidjan each month. Because most have no money, they move in with relatives or friends from their home villages. Thus an already critical housing situation is worsened. Few new arrivals have education or skills. Many are unable to speak or understand French and therefore cannot find employment except as laborers. Even these jobs are not plentiful.

Tradition is strong among African families. Those who have must share with those who have not. Thus a person, like Ahmadou, who enjoys a steady wage is expected to shelter, feed, and otherwise help support any relative or person from his village who comes to him for help. To refuse hospitality would violate one of the most deep-seated African traditions. It would provoke anger and contempt among the homefolk. Since most Africans have close ties with friends and families upcountry, few are willing to run risks. Yet many Africans abandon the countryside for the cities to escape these heavy familial and tribal obligations. They are not always successful. In the cities relatives, friends, and fellow villagers seek them out. The pressure to aid the less fortunate is very strong.

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Even after years of city work many Africans have little to show in the way of savings. Few own homes. At the risk of alienating relatives and friends, increasing numbers of young Africans refuse to support anyone but their immediate families. Such rebels are a minority. It will be years before their influence becomes popular. Yet the feeling remains strong among them. If life is to be better for them and their children, if the country is ever to be modernized, then great changes must somehow be wrought in African customs, even at the risk of provoking some social disintegration.

Relations between Voltaic immigrants and native Ivoiriens are cordial. There have been a few scattered conflicts but nothing serious. One reason for the good relations is that most Voltaics who come to the Ivory Coast are willing to accept jobs which Ivoiriens think are beneath them. And the Ivory Coast's new prosperity has created new jobs which have permitted many Ivoiriens to give up less attractive work.

Stability is likely to continue as long as the Ivory Coast continues to prosper and its economy expands. However, if expansion slows and curtails opportunities, trouble might develop. There are several potential threats. A major one is the continued migration of Ivoirien and Voltaic youths to towns in search of employment. The Voltaics' reputation for being the harder workers might be difficult for Ivoiriens to overcome. As educational level rises, Voltaics might enjoy job preferences. Tension could then be expected to develop between the natives and the immigrants.

Ahmadou is not greatly concerned with politics. Like many other Voltaics and Ivoiriens he paid 200 francs ($.80) at the beginning of the year for a membership card in the Parti Démocratique de la Côte d'Ivoire which rules Ivory Coast. But the P.D.C.I. puts no real pressure on him to attend its meetings or turn out for political rallies. As in other African countries, the Party is regarded as the major vehicle of national unification. In the Ivory Coast, however, the government is the stronger force for unification.

More important than politics in Ahmadou's life is religion. At least once a day he goes to the Adjamé mosque. His wife never accompanies him. Only a few older women go to the mosque. Young women are discouraged from attending. "If young women were allowed to go to the mosque," Ahmadou smilingly admitted, "we men would not be able to concentrate much on our prayers."

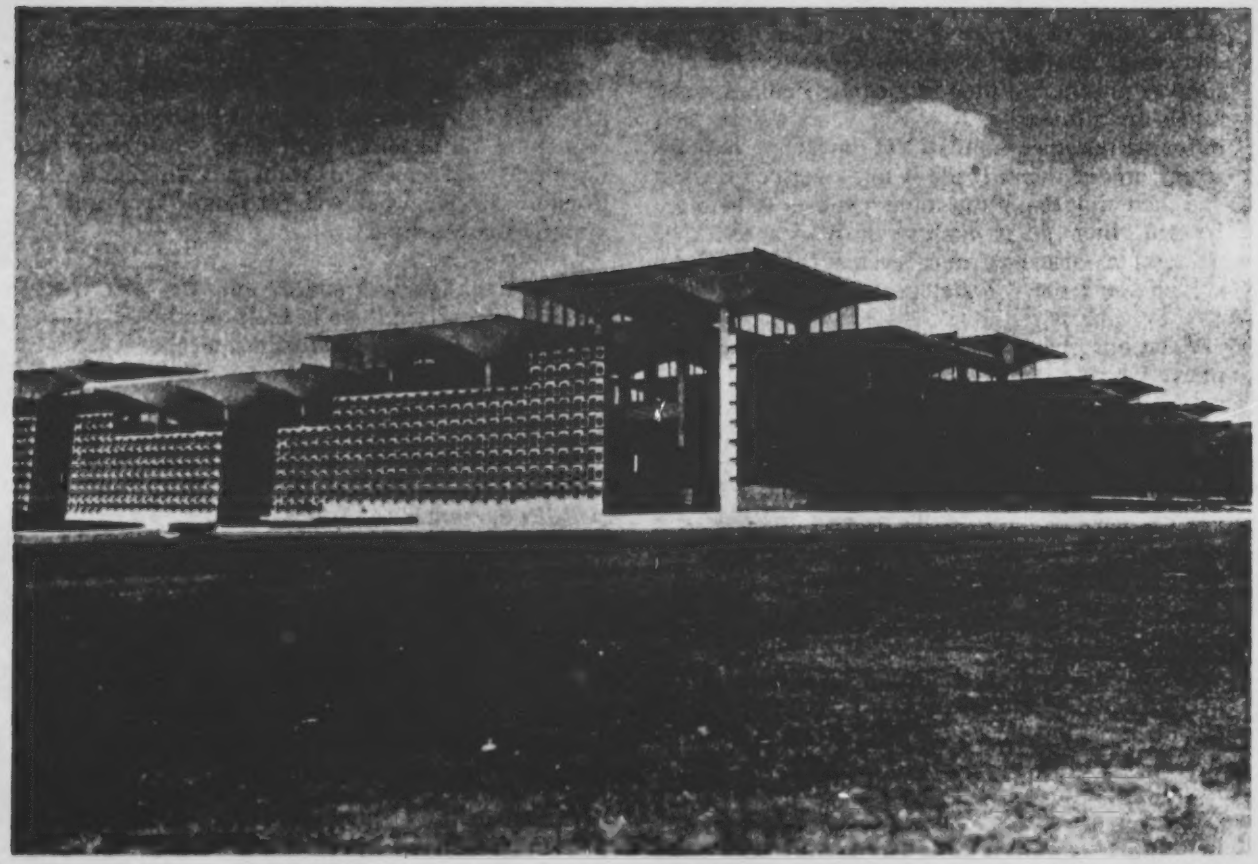
Like other adult Africans in the Ivory Coast, Ahmadou has been required by the government to contribute to a general fund for the construction of three religious centers in Abidjan, a cathedral for Roman Catholics, a church for Protestants, and a mosque for Muslims.

For recreation, Ahmadou and his wife visit friends or entertain them in their own home. Since most of their friends are Muslims, alcohol is taboo. Only fruit juice or soft drinks are offered. Once a week Ahmadou and his wife go to the cinema in Adjamé. The admission is less than half what the "European" theaters charge. Great occasions, particularly important Muslim feasts such as the last day of Ramadan, or Tabaski, call for considerable outlay of funds. As an employed head of a household, Ahmadou is expected to buy a lamb, slaughter it, and offer an elaborate dinner to neighborhood friends and relatives. The herders, knowing the demand for sheep will be great, often double their price. Pressure from Ahmadou's social group is so great that he must make the expenditures even though they cripple him financially for months.

Ahmadou and his generation are scarcely literate. Yet they see all these problems. They understand and readily acknowledge that Africans must become more self-reliant if they are to get ahead—if the country is to develop. They are convinced that with the development of educational facilities and with the new opportunities opening up for the young, the problems that have handicapped their society can be solved. They see a gradual transformation of their country. Roads will be paved. Water mains will be laid. There will be more schools.

Adjamé itself is changing. The old marketplace with the colorful confusion has given way to a new modern center of revolutionary design. Bulldozers are razing the old mud houses and new communities are being built. There is a general feeling—more a certainty than a hope—that life will be better next year than it is this year.

This must be, Ahmadou says. Otherwise, "What will independence mean?"



The new market place in Adjamé. How can this new facility serve Ahmadou, his employer, and madame?

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. How would you describe Ahmadou's "*World*"?

2. How do the *past*, *present*, and *future* differ in Ahmadou's world?

3. How would you describe the relationships between:
   a. Ahmadou and Islam?
   b. Wife?
   c. Family?
   d. Village?
   e. Job?
   f. Madame?
   g. Employer?
   h. French culture?
   i. Colonialism?
   j. Independence?
   k. Politics?
   l. Economics?
   m. Society?
   n. Global human culture?
   o. Self identity?

4. How does Ahmadou survive?

5. How like people in your own society are Ahmadou's employer, madame, and Ahmadou himself?

UJAMAA VILLAGES*

Many people disagree about the true meaning of socialism. Some feel that socialism in Africa is an ideology based on the theories of Marx and Engels. Others claim that Africans have an independent claim to socialism. It existed in Africa, they argue, long before Marx and Engels were born in Europe.

There is agreement though that the term *African Socialism* is new. It symbolizes the struggle of African peoples to rid themselves of attitudes acquired during the years they were subject to colonial domination. It proclaims their commitment toward establishing eventual economic and social stability.

Tanzania has taken the most positive steps toward that goal. African Socialism, says the country's President Julius Nyerere, is Tanzania's national philosophy. The practice of African Socialism, he declares, has three broad objectives:

1. To establish a community where equal rights and equal opportunities are accorded to all its members;
2. To create an atmosphere free of injustice, suffering, and exploitation;
3. To elevate the baseline of material welfare before any person is able to live in individual luxury.

Nyerere contends that these objectives are extensions of traditional African customs. They are based on the practices of the extended family.

The government of Tanzania has organized a village system, called *Ujamaa*, to make socialist ideals a reality. Tanzanians are encouraged to live communally in Ujamaa villages. They pool scarce resources and technically skilled people so that the entire economic base will be elevated. Membership in the villages is strictly voluntary. And no village receives financial or other support from the government until it has demonstrated commitment to the objectives of a socialistic community.

New village residents have a six-month probation period before full acceptance as members of the commune. A new member must be judged compatible by all the older members. Once accepted, a member may be expelled only for gross misconduct. Following a meeting of the entire village, expulsion is immediate.

Why do people join an Ujamaa village? Some hope to obtain free and plentiful food. Some seek to escape crowded urban conditions and frequent unemployment. Some wish to secure land. For many it is a means to get services which were previously unavailable. They want schooling for their children and sometimes themselves. They want medical attention. Ujamaa villages also provide access to a safe, reliable water supply.

Whatever their motive, people who come to the villages usually develop a strong group spirit. The villagers tend to be very optimistic.

The *meeting* is a key element in Ujamaa village life. It gives the people an opportunity to talk about individual as well as common problems. They can talk about local and national issues. The meeting is also a means to introduce new technical information. It provides an opportunity to demonstrate new equipment. Because of the importance of the meetings, people attend and participate.

Meetings usually conclude with some form of social activity. Picnics and dances are common. Sometimes the members read documents prepared by their President Mwalimu (Teacher) Nyerere.

Kerege

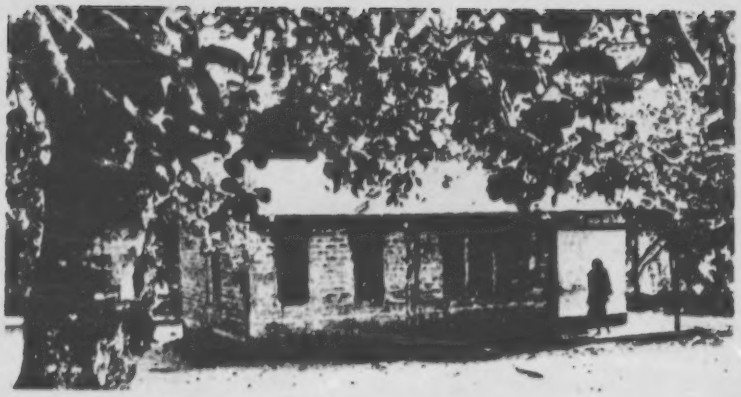
The village at Kerege was started in 1965. It is about 40 miles from Dar es Salaam, the capital of Tanzania. Until about 1970 Kerege accommodated 250 families. Officials now envision its growth to a maximum of 700 families occupying the 7,000 acre site.

Kerege village is made up of families from all over Tanzania. Most are not from nearby areas. A large number of the participants formerly lived in other cooperatives. They came to Kerege because it offers a prospect for producing lucrative crops.

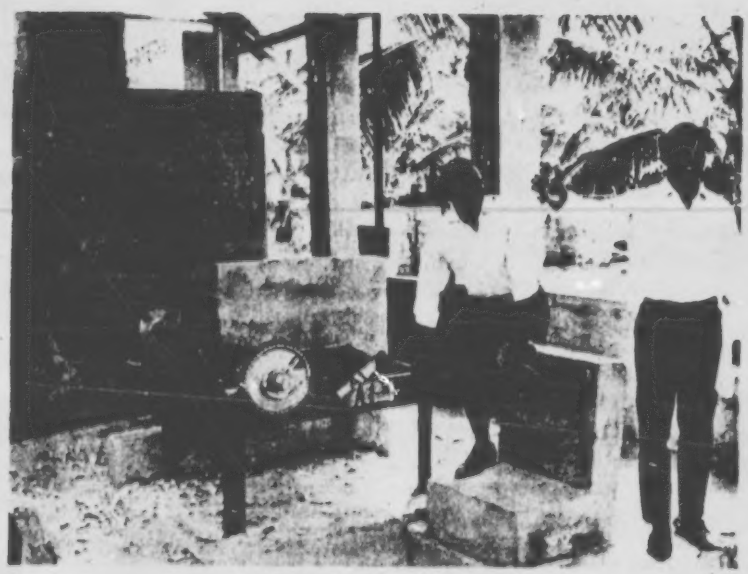
Cashew nuts and coconuts are the basic cash crops. Four hundred acres are planted in cashew trees, three hundred in coconut palms. The

*Adapted with permission from a newsletter of the same title by George Jones, Fellow, Institute of Current World Affairs, October 1970.

Village chairman.



Residence.



Cashew factory.

Pre-visit orientation.

villagers also grow food for their own consumption. Rice, cassava, maize, bananas, and potatoes are grown in cooperative fields and in private gardens. The village in 1970 owned over one hundred cattle, including a large number for dairy production. The milk is processed in a nearby town. It is then distributed among the village residents. The remainder is sold to the Makonde people who live just outside the Ujamaa village area. The village is expanding its flocks of chickens in the hope of producing eggs and meat for external sale.

The political structure of the Ujamaa is streamlined. There is a chairman. People are elected and appointed to serve on a series of committees. The executive committee of fifteen members is the top decision-making group. It is the court of appeals for disputes arising among other groups. Among the committees are those for finances, social life, agriculture, and building. Every villager works under a committee's direction. The villagers may choose the committee under which they prefer to work. Attendance at committee meetings is obligatory. Salaries paid individuals are based on the committee attendance records.

Each Ujamaa village has an area of specialization. The specialty reflects locally available resources. Specialization is also a result of the national effort. The desire is to develop the economic base equally in the different parts of Tanzania.

Kerege's specialty is producing cashew nuts. They are harvested, then processed and sold. A new processing plant has been built. A consultant from India aided in the design and construction. The beginning factory work force of 240 people is expected to grow to 2,000. Cashew sales bring in about $2,429 monthly. This is Kerege's main crop and cash income.

During the dry season there is little farm work. Villagers are employed on a building program for the village's expansion. They also make soap and weave cotton fabrics. Most timber products are processed during the dry season. Many people are engaged in small carpentry projects.

Kerege village has a school and a medical dispensary. All the teachers are provided by Tanzania's National Service Unit. They are all certified. Children are given a basic education—reading, writing, and arithmetic. They are also schooled in the philosophy and practical aspects of Ujamaa. For example, farming techniques are taught. Sometimes additional schooling becomes no longer possible or desirable for an individual. When that occurs, the student is qualified to take a position in almost any area of work in the village. Reading comprehension programs are offered during evening hours. These are for people, mostly adults, who must work during regular school hours. The curriculum can also accommodate students seeking college level education.

It is not uncommon for a person to work more than ten hours on the *shamba*, or farm. Many attend school and a committee meeting for several more hours. It has been reported that women especially find it difficult to stay awake during the meetings. They must work in the fields and elsewhere with as much effort as the men. In addition, they have the responsibility of the children. A few women have recently created babysitting cooperatives. This arrangement allows more women to participate in more activities of the village.

School teachers are provided by the larger national community. The medical staff is made up of people from the local village. They have all been trained in the medical center at Dar es Salaam. Basically, the staff consists of a midwife, several medical aides, and a registered nurse. Severe cases are referred to the District Medical Officer in Dar es Salaam.

The village consists of four basic areas. The largest portion of the 1,000 acre tract is given over to communal farm lands. Residences are clustered and adjoined by the business, service and factory area. In addition, there is the area for private cultivation. Usually, each villager has two or three acres of land for his own use. Most of the inhabitants raise a few animals or crops to sell on the open market. As long as one remains a part of the Ujamaa community, such activity is permitted, even encouraged. But as soon as he decides to leave, or is expelled by the group, the land reverts to the community. It is rare, however, for people to willingly give up their land after spending time and energy cultivating it.

* * * * *

Ujamaa villages are not without problems. In some areas they have not been able to attract

members. Because membership is voluntary, the government must work to make villages that are remote from urban centers more attractive.

On the other hand, the government must guard against cultivating dependent attitudes among villagers. They should do their own problem solving according to Ujamaa principles. The experiment will have failed if the government has constantly to intervene. Although food rations are made available in emergencies, officials sometimes fear that crops will be neglected in order to collect free food.

And the government has made mistakes, too. In the early days of zealous enthusiasm for Ujamaa, it introduced a large number of tractors in several villages. Fewer people were then needed to farm the crops. Unemployment was a serious problem.

Decisons have usually been made with adequate planning and study. Crops must be located near appropriate processing facilities and vice versa. So large an effort requires time. And skills must be built up, techniques refined. As production is increased new markets must be developed. Ujamaa requires faith and patience. So do other systems for developing human and other resources.

Some big money crops, like coconuts, take several years from planting to harvest. People must depend on and plan for alternative sources of income and food during the long waiting period. Time and time again the Ujamaa experience has demonstrated that success is in the planning. Village, regional, and national planning are all essential. These plans must be integrated to ensure Ujamaa's success.

The Ujamaa participants in Kerege and various Tanzanian officials are optimistic. Mistakes, they say, are also "lessons." Their accumulated experience can lead to a sound and viable program for future growth. The hope is that these Tanzanian experiments in living will provide models for others around the world. Organizing people and resources in beneficial ways is a basic need. Kerege and other Ujamaa villages in Tanzania are efforts through which the goals of African socialism may be realized.

Nkrumah receiving a delegation of traditional chiefs.

AN AFRICAN GARDEN

Varieties of Nationalism and Pan-Africanism

Ghana

Immediately after World War II, the Gold Coast (Ghana) attracted attention. There was a glamorous young politician, Kwame Nkrumah. There was a long tradition of genteel political opposition. The country had a highly articulate, well-educated class of Africans. Nkrumah's personality was compelling. Western publicity concerning Nkrumah flowed freely and favorably. Europeans were searching for the exotic in Africa. All these interests combined for a time to make the affairs of Accra the focus of the African political spotlight.

Nkrumah recognized from an early date that the traditional political elite had a strong stake in the colonial system. But this traditional elite had little wealth to invest in a modern economy. They also represented local, not national interests. They were rivals for power. Nkrumah was the first Prime

Minister of the Gold Coast Colony. He became President of the Republic of Ghana when it achieved independence in 1957.

Nkrumah worked steadily to reduce the power of the traditional rulers. He forced the pace of modernization in government by successfully neutralizing the challenge from the traditional quarter. In so doing, he achieved national unity by abolishing the bases of local, ethnic loyalties. He also eliminated his political opposition, which rested for the most part on both tribal and regional allegiance. In 1966 he proclaimed Ghana a one-party state. He turned increasingly from his position as national leader to that of spokesman for continental unity.

Guinea

Guinea gained complete independence in 1958. President Sékcu Touré made a peaceful but radical withdrawal from the French community. It cost his country trade preferences, technical assistance, and financial aid.

French rule in Guinea was unlike that of the British in Nigeria or Uganda. For 60 years the French had treated the peoples of the territory as a unit. The colonial authorities did not recognize distinct ethnic groups. Touré and his Parti Démocratique de Guinée capitalized on this aspect of the colonial legacy. They carried it further. They made the subordination of the individual to the nation a leading principle of Guinean ideology. The sense of national unity also benefited from anticolonial feeling. It was strengthened by Guinea's resolve to triumph over French President de Gaulle's disfavor.

President Touré interpreted nationalism as the end product of the decolonization process. It had to continue beyond the achievement of political independence. In Guinea, Touré proclaimed, "we want to destroy the habits, conceptions and way of conduct of colonialism. We are determined to replace them with forms that are Guinean forms, conceived by the people of Guinea."

Tanzania

Sékou Touré found a counterpart in East Africa in Julius Nyerere. Nyerere was a sympathetic and equally idealistic nationalist leader. He became president of Tanganyika in 1961. (Zanzibar united with Tanganyika in 1964 to become the Republic of

Tanzania.) There were neither powerful ethnic groups nor historic kingdoms in Tanganyika. No one challenged Nyerere's political legitimacy nor that of the single political party. He called his political philosophy African Socialism. It emphasized an egalitarian society. Like Touré, Nyerere focused on the necessity to eliminate the colonially inspired mentality of subservience. He wanted to create a society that was culturally African.

Nyerere's Ideal

The ideal of national development was eloquently summarized in the Arusha Declaration of 1967. It predicted the emergence of a new African, frugal and self-reliant. Discrepancies in wealth between urban and rural dwellers would not exist. No privileged class, such as that which in many African countries has succeeded the colonial elite, would be created. Nyerere and Nkrumah were equally committed to Pan-Africanism. But Nyerere sought in the cultivation of a Tanzanian national consciousness the simultaneous creation of a new African identity.

Julius Nyerere.

Zambia

> The official policy of Zambia is humanism. This means that everything undertaken in Zambia is done with the interests of the common man uppermost in mind. The expansion of education, employment, and the economy are considered worthless if the end goal is not a fuller, happier, and more meaningful life for the people. Humanism is the political antithesis of fascism.*

Kenneth Kaunda, President of Zambia, shares many beliefs with Nyerere. But he has not been as successful in guiding Zambians toward African Socialism. Kaunda has problems, however, which Nyerere does not. Tribal tension, intensified by religious separation, is perhaps the worst.

Linguistic divisions are another source of trouble. No single language is dominant in Zambia. The six largest groups compete. On the other hand, Zambia had the wealth of the Copperbelt to fill the treasury when independence came. Tanzania had no great natural resources to exploit. It was predominantly a nation of peasant farms, little industry, and few skilled workers. Zambians working on the Copperbelt held positions inferior to those of Europeans. They were nevertheless privileged by the standards of other Africans. They also acquired many of the technical skills regarded as necessary to a rapidly developing economy.

Kaunda's Humanism

Kaunda's philosophy of "humanism" is an attempt to avoid the evils often associated with rapid development. Zambia's economy is split into two extremes—mining and subsistence farming. One is wealthy, the other very poor. The few are wealthy, the many are poor. The nation is trying to bridge the extremes through programs for general economic development. Kaunda asks the direct questions: "Is there any way my people can have the blessing of technology without being eaten away by materialism? Can they retain the spiritual dimension of their lives?"

Humanism emphasizes the *quality* of life. Harmony of people together and people with nature is a recurrent theme in his speeches. The rewards of

*Excerpt from "Information Guide for Delegates" Third Summit Conference of Non-Aligned Nations, Lusaka, Zambia, September 1970.

development must be shared equally, Kaunda believes, among farm and city dwellers, among farmers, miners, and office workers.

Zambia today is far from Kaunda's vision. And there are disturbing signs that Kaunda is no longer willing to accept criticism. Student demonstrations are suppressed by military troops. The country can no longer afford to support "liberation troops" who fight in the Portuguese colonies. Agricultural production is down and so is copper. Boycotts aimed at Rhodesia have hurt the Zambian economy. Increasingly, Kaunda is dependent upon the toleration of powerful, white-ruled neighbors. He must speak softly and carry only a small stick.

Ivory Coast

Unlike Nyerere, Touré, and Kaunda, President Félix Houphouët-Boigny of the Ivory Coast had downplayed ideology. The Ivoirien President emphasized a pragmatic approach to economic development. Even after independence, he relied heavily on France for financial aid. He cultivated trade preferences in Europe. He sought technological assistance, including personnel. But he did have to confront the challenge to national unity presented by the Ivory Coast's many language and ethnic groups. Houphouët-Boigny chose to promote the use of French language and culture as a binding force.

Economically, Ivory Coast policies have been successful. They have not been very popular, however, with Pan-Africanists. Ivory Coast's buoyant economy is oriented primarily toward the West. Its overall growth rate has been high. It has averaged some 8 per cent expansion for a decade. Exports consistently exceed imports. Reserve money and domestic credit have consistently risen, and consumer price increases have been gradual. In general, the Ivory Coast has wielded continental influence, balancing the drift away from capitalism.

Nigeria

The British had ruled Nigeria through the traditional political elites. This was especially true in the Muslim north. There the semi-feudal political structure of the Hausa Emirate was maintained practically intact. The traditional "nations" were recognized by the colonial government and therefore strengthened. Some critics called British policy "divide and rule."

In Nigeria's eastern and western areas, the colonial government was more intensive. The inhabitants were more intensively exposed and responsive to western culture. The south had economic products—like oil—that were valuable to Europeans, the north had less obviously attractive wealth. Thus economic development in the south heightened regional distinctiveness.

Nigeria became independent under a federal constitution in 1960. It was designed to provide stability by a delicate balancing of regional interests. But the very concept of central government was weakened from the beginning. Every ethnic group, large or small, made continuing demands for local autonomy. There were no political parties in Nigeria without strong tribal associations. No traditions of cooperation existed between the various and powerful ethnic groups. There was little regional integration. In short, there was no compelling reason why such a large territory should remain unified after its European creators withdrew.

Nigeria endured six years of regional bickering. Rigged elections and widespread government corruption destroyed popular confidence. Increasing violence and public disorder culminated in a series of military coups followed by civil war. But there is much reason for optimism today. The struggle to preserve the framework of national unity appears to have a good effect. The Biafran (Eastern Nigeria) secession ended in January 1970; Nigeria the state may yet become the nation.

Nigeria today is a dynamic country, powerful in the African context. Because of Nigeria's substantial oilfields and other valuable resources, it becomes richer daily. And Nigeria is large, about sixty million people. It has more than twice as many inhabitants as any other country in Africa.

The task of deploying Nigeria's wealth and directing development falls to General Yakubu Gowon. He is one of the youngest heads of state in the world. Nevertheless, his leadership over the past seven years is termed "miraculous" by Nigerians and outside observers. He is admired and respected. He has capably led Nigerians and Nigeria toward reconciliation and reconstruction.

Nigeria's government calls itself a "military democracy." Elections to return the country to civilian rule are scheduled for 1976. Perhaps Gowon will even become a candidate. His commitment to Nigeria's successful development is total. "If we fail," Gowon once said, "the whole of Africa and the black race will not forgive us."

INDEPENDENCE PRELUDE

For some the symbols of power were clear, easily attainable, and quietly transferred. The state seal of independent Sierra Leone now adorns old Fort Thornton from which British governors once ruled the colony. Similarly, the British West Africa Regiment stationed near Freetown became the core of a national army after independence.

The future is always affected by the past. African struggles for independence were no exception. The nature of independence movements was strongly affected by the colonial experiences which came before.

European colonialism made a deep mark on Africa. It continues long after political independence has been won. The character of the colonial experience differed from country to country. In large part those differences were reflected in the nature of each country's struggle for independence.

The Role of European Settlers

Large numbers of European settlers considered certain parts of Africa their home. In Algeria, Kenya, the Rhodesias, and South Africa White settler minorities ruled the Black and Brown African majority. Only a few of these Europeans had served directly in the colonial governments. Most engaged in business and commerce, agriculture, and education. When African nationalists attempted to take control, conflict followed. The clash between their hopes and aspirations and the powerful "alien majority" of Europeans often took a violent course.

Africans sought to "win back" what colonialism had given to people with European ancestry. There were farms and factories and trading arrangements. "How best to put African destiny back into the hands of Africans?" was the question. Two patterns emerged. Where Europeans were present in large numbers, conflict tended to develop. Transition to African rule tended to be peaceful in areas where large European settlements had not been established.

In Uganda and Nigeria the "settler" community was small. Most Europeans in these new nations had been British colonial officials. "Indirect rule" had been their policy. They had ruled through the traditional power structure and its African political elite. Europeans had negotiated and arranged. African social structures were largely left intact. Later this produced another sort of problem. Traditional African interests played against one another, as in the Nigerian/Biafran Civil War. Or traditional leaders clashed with those positions of power created by their societies' efforts to modernize and industrialize. Many Africans went abroad seeking higher education. In the process they also became, to some extent, Western in their

attitudes and behavior. They traveled and studied in Europe, America, and in the U.S.S.R. New elite systems began to rise among urban, educated Africans and wage laborers.

Tanganyika, a United Nations Trust Territory, transferred power peacefully. There were even fewer Europeans than in Uganda or Nigeria. An African government received control gradually and quietly from a colonial one.

Confrontation

Kenya, on the other hand, suffered a highly publicized confrontation. The "Mau Mau uprising" was dramatized, perhaps overly so. It pitted Africans against Europeans and Africans against Africans in a classic dispute. As Robert Ruark described in *Something of Value*, the European settlers were reluctant to give up the farms made prosperous by European markets and cheap African labor. Whites held power and were surrounded by a black majority. Shortages of land were forcing Africans to abandon a way of life they had followed for generations. One kind of power confronted another. "Mau Mau" became another name for black and white confrontations. In the West African Cameroons and within the Central African Federation blood was also shed. But independence was achieved almost everywhere. Southern Rhodesia was an exception.

The most prolonged and violent independence struggles were experienced in the Congo, which became Zaïre, and in Algeria. International public opinion was a major factor in the first case. Belgium was urged to give up its claim to the Congo. Decision makers in tiny Belgium acted hastily. People in European Brussels, the Belgian capital, cut the ties. Europeans in Leopoldville and elsewhere in the vast Congo River basin struggled to retain control. They were willing to ally with Africans who might insure their privileged position in the future. A secessionist movement followed independence. Eventually a united Zaïre developed out of what had been the Belgian Congo, then the Republic of the Congo.

Similarly, European colonists in Algeria fought a long "blood war" against both their own central government in France and the Algerian independence forces. "Keep Algeria French" was their motto. When invited to return to France, many replied "no, never!" Some died in Algeria. Most eventually returned to France. A few stayed and are being joined now by more returnees.

The Nature of the Struggle

Two important points emerge from these examples. With the exceptions of Mau Mau in Kenya and Congo-Zaïre, anticolonial violence was limited in scope and duration. It occurred infrequently for short periods, and in few places. For the most part it also lacked mass participation.

Secondly, the violence that did occur was consistently exaggerated in the reports of observers.

Colonial government officials worried openly that bloodshed would characterize the end of the era of European colonialism in Africa. White settlers, the European press, and many Black Africans also worried that the new independent and nationalistic governments might misuse power, promoting fear and bloodshed. A few did. Most did not. Love of life seems to be characteristic of all peoples. But the transition of power in Africa created tense periods.

With almost the whole African continent shifting from colonial to independent status, why was there not more violence? Two reasons stand out among many.

Peaceful Transitions

Agriculture is the basis of the life styles which characterize the majority of African peoples. Agrarianism in Africa was often a pace-keeping influence. Rural elders and traditional political authorities could "cool" the local agitators. The violence-prone leaders were forced to rely on the urban residents. The city dwellers' ties to custom were lessened by distance and by the new experience of urban living. The breakdown of traditional values and beliefs, urbanization, unemployment, and sometimes violence were all linked in with the growth of anticolonialism. Where water and land were plentiful in rural areas, and traditional social organization undisturbed, the level of violence was very low.

While most Africans remained outside the cities, the effects of changing economic conditions penetrated deeply. More and more not quite urbanized Africans were drawn closer to the centers of colonial power. Their views were expressed forcefully. Their fears and frustrations were heard by Europeans and other Africans. The energy created

For many outside the cities, desire for political change came more slowly but eventually penetrated deeply.

in an independence movement in one place increased the momentum elsewhere.

A second reason for the relative lack of violence as Africans gained independence may have been the "law and order" policies of the colonial governments. From the beginning their survival had depended on maintenance of nonviolent conditions. Police were "well armed." Field forces, parading battalions, and visiting warships were all reminders of the tremendous power which the colonial power could unleash. "Showing the flag" and "maintaining the peace" worked together. When Mau Mau incidents spread in East African Kenya, British colonials countered with modern weaponry, including anti-personnel and napalm bombs. Algeria was a far bloodier battleground. These weapons and large-scale arrests "maintained the peace." Their very existence intimidated people and kept them quiet.

Thus the colonial period was a prelude to the independence of African countries and their various attempts to act in concert. But simply to say that the nature of European colonialism affected the outcome is not enough. Where? When? How? Why? To consider these questions is to begin to understand modern Africa.

PREPARATION FOR INDEPENDENCE

The Decolonialization Process

In a word, the preparation European governments gave their African colonies was "inadequate." Too little and too late. The experience of the Congo is an extreme example, There, a frenzied political situation followed the rapid withdrawal in 1960 of Belgian control.

Retreating in similar haste, the British on the East African island of Zanzibar failed to pass political responsibility to the Black African majority. The situation resulted in a bloody revolution against Zanzibar's Arab rulers soon after its achievement of independence in 1963. Zanzibar and Tanganyika then joined together as Tanzania under a single government. Loss of life in Zanzibar might have been avoided had preparation for independence been more carefully handled, as in Tanganyika. Maybe not.

Lack of understanding causes much grief. Well-meaning colonial officials perceived events in Africa in a manner conditioned by their European background. Tension between Africans in different areas or culture groups was often increased by colonial policies. Sometimes the effect was intentional, more often it was not. In Kenya, for instance, colonialist stereotypes led to the classification of the Nandi people as "good police." Kipsigis were classified as "good house servants." The Luo were thought to be "good dockworkers." Kikuyu were seen as the most receptive to modernization but also the "most dangerous." These stereotypes led to advantages for some—also jealousy and rivalry.

In Uganda, the Baganda were historically and economically "on top." Colonial favoritism intensified existing tensions. These so-called ethnic rivalries continue long after Uganda's independence has been achieved. In Nigeria the Ibo and other Eastern ethnic groups were favored as colonial administrators. They appeared to be ambitious in a way that Europeans could understand. Ibo aggressiveness in post-independence Nigeria was a major factor in precipitating the Nigerian civil war.

Reluctant Liberators

Colonialism dies hard. To consciously prepare a colony for independence is inconsistent with the very idea of colonial status. People in colonies are subjects. They are always viewed as dependent

upon the ruling power. Because racist beliefs predominated among White colonialists in Africa, Blacks were usually seen as *inevitably* dependent. White rule was often defended as the "natural scheme of things." Thus independence in Africa meant more than a transfer of political power. It was also the negation of a system of beliefs which proclaimed that Black and Brown African peoples and cultures were inferior.

Colonialism in Africa, however, provided reasons for pride as well as regret. Take the issue of education. Education of Africans in Western-style schools was always a two-edged sword. To educate was dangerous. And it was dangerous not to educate. Educational policies varied. Policy objectives were inconsistent. Education was desired so that Africans might staff lower-level civil service positions. But education was not supposed to foster independent spirit. Particularly in the English-speaking colonies, however, the availability of education contributed to all forms of African unrest. Having been given a "peek into the European world of plenty" those Africans receiving extensive schooling seldom moved into a condition of "plenty." "Not having" is made more difficult when those who "have" are nearby and visible.

The seeds of "high expectations" were planted by books and educational programs. These hopes often exceeded the rewards that educated African clerks and junior officials received. They read about "justice," "dignity," "freedom," and "freedom from want" in European-dominated schools. Such words were like strong medicines. Bright young men were encouraged to dream about what could be. Then they turned their heads and saw the poverty which often surrounded them. Frustration was one result, pressure for independence was another.

One scheme for preparing leaders for Africa's future was to send young Africans to other nations for education. Like magnets, the European colonial powers, the United States, the Soviet Union, and other so-called "developed" nations attracted young scholars from Africa. On returning home, many of these became leaders in anticolonial movements. The returning "messiah" who rallied the people to dissent became an important character in the decolonialization drama. The scene was played again and again. All of Africa's major political figures who received power from the departing colonial regimes had spent many years abroad.

Another training ground for anticolonial leaders was provided by the prisons and jails and other forms of detention. Those "detained" could later be called martyrs. The graduates of colonial imprisonment became a new elite. Among those earning prison certificates in the schooling for independence were Kwame Nkrumah, Hastings K. Banda, Jomo Kenyatta, and the Kabaka (King) of Uganda, Mustesa II.

Other things contributed to the "winds of change" which began to blow over Africa. Some began long ago. The myth of "the invincible white man" was shattered during World War II by the Japanese. African troops were used as packers and bearers in Asian Burma and in African Ethiopia as well as elsewhere. These African "carriers" brought home stories of European defeats in battle. They saw the possibility of defeating the European colonials in Africa. Some of them became leaders speaking in behalf of independence. Many more gave solid support as the growing agitation for independence intensified.

After World War II, world market prices for agricultural commodities fluctuated wildly. Whether the crop was cocoa, peanuts, or coffee, Africans seemed to lack control over their own fortunes. Local economic depressions were the too frequent result of reduced market prices. Then the Korean War of the 1950s again brought high demands for African metals and foods. The prosperity was short lived. As the war tapered off, so did the demand for many goods. Laborers in urban areas were unemployed. Many returned destitute to their poor home villages. But the pressures on survival had increased there too. The cash economy was barely existent but money was nonetheless required to pay taxes.

Both the British and the French tried to derive enough income from taxing their colonies to defray the cost of administration. Thus the climate of anger and frustration was easily maintained in city and village alike. And it spread.

The next chapter was written in a decade for all the French and British colonies. In South and Central Africa, it is still being written.

* * * * *

THE INDEPENDENCE STRUGGLE IN KENYA

What was to become the Kenya independence movement began peacefully. It was well within the legal bounds permitted by British colonial authorities. Various African groups pressed for reforms in colonial policies. But the local administration was dominated by the European settlers in Kenya.

Fearing a loss of privilege, the whites took no meaningful action toward resolving the black grievances. Some Africans began to look to other tactics. They formed new political organizations to achieve their goals. A desire for African control over government replaced the older ideal of reform. The best known of the new organizations was called "Mau Mau."

The years 1951 to 1955 were marked by startling violence in Kenya. That experience was a not-to-be-forgotten lesson for the British when they considered the disposal of their other colonial possessions.

Early Mau Mau incidents were first reported in the European press as "native uprisings." Later they were attributed to political terrorists. We now know that they were immensely more complicated.

Mau Mau reflected a civil war among the Kikuyu people, who predominated in the national organization. Mau Mau was also an African challenge to European settler rule. The British response was to meet violence, real or implied, with violence.

A number of basic issues divided Africans and Europeans in Kenya. Most were economic. The single most important issue was European occupation of African land, especially that of the Kikuyu. A minority of the European population was involved. Only 23 per cent of the Europeans were engaged in agriculture and fishing, according to the 1948 Kenya census. Urban-based occupations—government service, commercial, professional, clerical—accounted for most of the remainder. Nevertheless, European settlers in what were called the White Highlands shaped British policy in the colony and prevented land reform. The land reserved for Kikuyu was increasingly overcrowded with people. Geographically, it was sandwiched between "white-only" Nairobi and the Highlands. Kikuyu and their ancestral homelands were at the forefront of cultural contact with Europeans. Kikuyu were close enough to the centers of European society to see and understand their relative deprivation.

Jomo Kenyatta is a central figure in the modern history of Kenya. He left his native land in 1931 and remained in Europe for 15 years. There he became a well-known spokesman for African nationalist causes. In London he shared attention with Kwame Nkrumah, who later became president of Ghana, and Hastings Kamazu Banda, who became president of Malawi. By the time Kenyatta returned to Kenya in 1946, his name was well known. His reputation earned him positions of leadership in the rapidly developing organizations among urban Africans. These groups, along with labor unions, had two major goals. They wanted an expansion of African economic opportunities and land reform.

These reform-minded groups did not get their support from traditional land-based African political authority. They were themselves creations of the colonial system and a modern economy. Significantly, these organizations had the most direct appeal to Kikuyu. Among the Africans in Kenya, the Kikuyu were located closest to the government centers. They were the most affected by land pressure in the competition with Europeans for space. Perhaps most important, Kikuyu were culturally oriented toward change.

The first terrorist killing of a European had not yet occurred. But fact and fiction concerning the exotic character of Mau Mau were at the tip of every European tongue. Ignorance of African objectives and fear of change made the colonialists inflexible.

Soon after the first wave of Mau Mau crimes, Kenyatta was arrested. He was tried and then imprisoned. John B. George observed the subsequent trial. His report expressed the mood of the country and the atmosphere in the courtroom in addition to recording the legal proceedings.

At 10 A.M., December 3, 1952 six African defendants were seated in a courtoom in

remote Kapenguria, Kitale District, Kenya. The courtroom itself is improvised from a school building. It is fifteen miles inside the district border, which is closed except to those who carry official passes. There is no jury. Under emergency regulations, Kenyatta and his five co-defendants appear before a single judge in a Magistrate trial.

The magistrate is Justice Thacker. An elderly man, he was brought out of retirement for this case. Dr. Louis S.B. Leakey, famed for his archaeological discoveries, is court interpreter. Both the Crown Prosecution and the Defense Counsel are Europeans.

The accused illustrate the diversity of East African racial types. Jomo Kenyatta is a large man, lightly bearded. His corduroy trousers are topped by a beige-colored zipper jacket. His heavy belt is decorated with colored beads. His smile has several gaps but his eyes are bright and penetrating. At Kenyatta's left sits Fred Kubai. He is a labor leader representing organized taxi and truck drivers. Kubai is secretary of the Nairobi branch of the Kenya Africa Union [K.A.U.]. Next is Richard Achieng Oneko, a tall, young, extraordinarily handsome man in a grey business suit. He is a Jaluo, not Kikuyu like the first two. Oneko was the K.A.U. representative presenting the organization's land case to the United Nations.

Bildad Kaggia, a small, lean man, occupies the fourth seat. His background includes service in the army. Paul Ngei is a Wakamba. His people occupy land to the southeast of the Kikuyu. Ngei's membership in K.A.U. probably represents an attempt to attract African *rather than only Kikuyu support. Kenyatta is particularly concerned that K.A.U. should be a* national *organization. Kungu Karumba is last. He is the oldest and is the only defendant who displays the distinctive facial markings of the Kikuyu people.*

* * *

Mau Mau had no list of membership. It had no written constitution, no written records. The Crown tried to link Kenyatta to Mau Mau using testimony from witnesses of Mau Mau initiations. One witness testified that the oath included three vows. Members must take an active role in driving out or killing Europeans. They should say nothing if witness to the murder of a European by an African. They must assist any African who stole from a European. The extent, if any, of Kenyatta's involvement with Mau Mau is as unclear today as it was then. Nevertheless, he was convicted of "managing Mau Mau" and sentenced to prison. He remained in detention from October 1952 to August 1961.

The incarceration of Kenyatta and his co-defendants failed to halt African agitation. More extremist views came to dominate in both camps, black and white. Moderate African leaders in the Kenya African Union (K.A.U.) lost control to urban militants from Nairobi and Mombasa. The urban activists carried the notion of violence to the peasantry. Its spread was accelerated greatly by the flight of urban leaders to the countryside after the European government declared a state of emergency. Those who did not flee were hunted down and imprisoned.

Urban workers had been relatively easy to recruit for the independence struggle. This was as true in Kenya as it was in Ghana, Zambia, Nigeria, and the Congo. Labor movements and labor leaders, like Kenya's Tom Mboya, were ready political allies. They joined the independence movement in order to achieve control over economic opportunity. These urban workers had already left the intellectual security of custom-regulated peasant society. Yet they were often disturbed by what was perceived as the harsh discipline of industrial labor. In the midst of the city's wealth, they were told to stand aside while Europeans enjoyed what African labor helped produce.

Nationalist political leaders next sought support among the rural peasantry. The first successes were among those farmers who were participants in the cash economy. These African farmers were often frustrated by the price fluctuations. Only European buyers and not African producers seemed to have any control. In some remote areas where the subsistence economy had not been disturbed and there was little Western educational influence, anti-colonial agitation was practically unknown.

Mau Mau was defeated by 1955, but white settler pretensions were also crushed. It is estimated that 30,000 Kikuyu had been killed. Another 68,000 were imprisoned in detention camps. Thirty-five Europeans had been killed.

Military victory by the British, Field Staff Associate Edwin S. Munger observed, was irrelevant to Kenya's problems. In fact, it was the beginning of the end of colonial rule. The political center of gravity shifted away from Nairobi, where white-settler interests dominated, to England. European unity had dissolved.

Economically, Africans made great strides during the Mau Mau Emergency. Money, men, and machines were poured into Kenya. Britain tried to spur development to win African support. In the effort to prevent Mau Mau's spread, the British finally attacked the root causes of African discontent. Kikuyu, Meru, and Emba homelands—once centers of Mau Mau strength—were objects of agricultural improvement projects. The government lifted the ban which prohibited Africans from growing cash crops for export. New jobs were opened to Africans at every level of government and commerce. The Kikuyu, Munger remarked, were in the forefront.

"The tide of African advance is unlikely to be stemmed," Munger concluded. "The next waves are clearly already on the horizon." Indeed, Kenya was granted independence December 12, 1963. It was eleven years after Jomo Kenyatta went on trial and only two years after his release from prison. He became President of the Republic one year later.

An aerial view of Nairobi.

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(Counterclockwise from upper left) Kenyan women preparing maize for grinding; a Kenyan farmer cutting sugar cane; the Parliament of Kenya; President Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya with President Obote of Uganda (left) and President Nyerere of Tanzania (right).

ZAÏRE: BOLD EXPERIMENT

In the Republic of Zaïre today an exciting new experiment is under way. Inspired by President Sese Seko Mobutu, its goal is to remove all traces of the colonial past. It aims to restore to the Zaïrian people a sense of pride in their own traditional culture. The movement has been labeled by President Mobutu himself a "return to Authenticity."

The concept of Authenticity has been eagerly embraced by the Congolese people. One reason for its great appeal is that the term can serve so many purposes. It can be used to justify a vast array of government policies. It can be a rallying cry uniting people in the difficult task of building a nation. Most important in the Congo, it counters tribalism and regionalism. Both these forces seriously threatened the territorial integrity of the state in its first tumultuous years of independence.

Unlike other philosophical concepts, Authenticity is not exotic. It is immediate, relevant, and practical. Moreover, it offers something to everyone. For the intellectual it is a foundation for a new sense of pride in himself, in his people, and in their history and artistic accomplishments. For the ordinary man it provides a frame of reference in a changing environment. It permits a complete reexamination and a gratifying reappraisal of the past. European, Christian colonizers had condemned traditional African life out of hand. The Congolese themselves had discarded their traditions out of an instilled sense of inferiority and shame. Authenticity leads the way to the future by reclaiming history.

The Colonial Background

Seventy-five years of Belgian rule in the Congo was a corrosive force in African society. King Leopold II personally ruled the "Congo Independent State," for 23 years. He regarded the land and its people as his private property. This was the most humiliating chapter in Congolese history. Agents of the king were at work to make the vast territory in the heart of Africa safe for free trade and commerce. They also worked toward the eventual Christianization of its people, and to hasten their adoption of Western civilization. During this entire period the Congo—80 times the size of Belgium—was ruled by a handful of white aliens. They dictated to the Congolese how they must live, what crops to grow, and which of their traditions they could keep and which they must discard. In a thousand different ways Africans were induced to believe that their own civilization was of little or no value. The greatest good to which they might aspire, they were told, was to assimilate the ways of the colonizer. Yet they were never to even hope to achieve the social and economic status enjoyed by the Europeans.

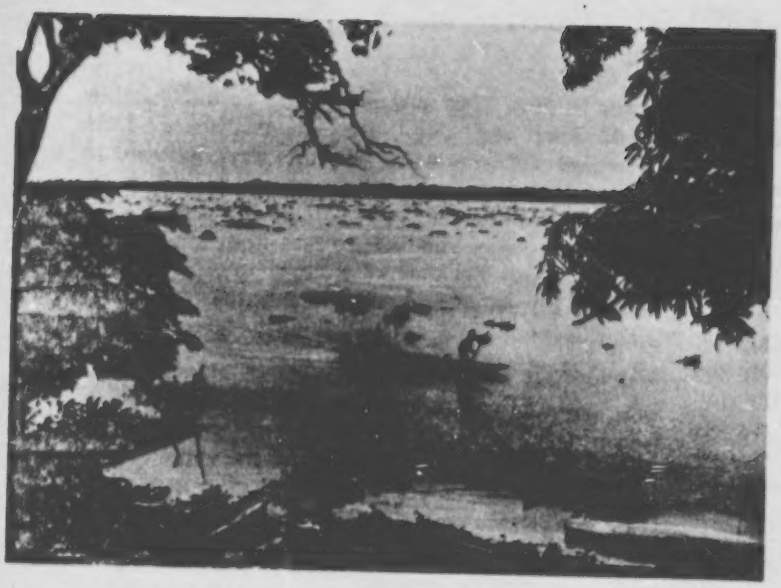
The first five years of Congolese independence was disillusioning. Despite their achievement of political independence from Belgium, their country remained an economic captive of the same forces. A relatively small group of businessmen back in Belgium ("300 messieurs") seemed still to be making decisions crucial for the prosperity of the Congo. They decided how the country's mineral resources should be exploited and to whom they should be sold. They decided what basic investments in infrastructure (dams, roads, railroads, etc.) should be undertaken and to what purpose.

Congolese began to realize one reason for their high cost of living. Much of what they had been taught was desirable, and to which they were now habituated, came from Europe. Such goods were sold in the Congo for more than they were worth. Congolese began to ask themselves fundamental questions. What is the economic relationship between the Congo and the outside world? Are there alternatives to the existing pattern?

General Mobutu came to power on November 24, 1965. The Congo was still suffering from the preceding five years of internal strife and foreign involvement. Large parts of the country still lay devastated. Infrastructure had been allowed to deteriorate. Many of the towns were without trained administrators. Thus the central government's authority was tenuous. The economy was sluggish as foreign investment lagged. Thousands of Congolese were out of work.

The competition of political parties was intense. There were fifty when Mobutu came to power. Most of them represented merely local, tribal interests. Factionalism sapped the nation's strength.

In sum, the country was dispirited and fragmented. It desperately needed a leader who could



The Zaïre River, much as Diogo Cão might have seen it.

Kinshasa (ex-Leopoldville), capital of the Republic of Zaïre. View of the Avenue du 30 juin, the city's leading thoroughfare.

A view of Kisangani (ex-Stanleyville) in the Republic of Zaïre.

take it in hand and revive the hope and confidence that the Congolese had felt on the eve of independence.

A New Name for a New Nation

President Mobutu made a surprise announcement on October 27, 1971. The Democratic Republic of the Congo (or Congo-Kinshasa) would henceforth become the Republic of Zaïre. The President further informed his startled countrymen that the Congo River would henceforth be the Zaïre River. A number of other municipal and provincial place names were changed. The President also replaced the country's flag with the MPR Party's flag (which shows a hand holding aloft a lighted torch). A new national anthem was introduced.

Some people feared that the President had made an embarrassing mistake. The Portuguese explorer,

Diogo Cão, had given the name "Zaïre" to the *mouth of the great river which he discovered in* 1482. Other skeptics pointed out that Zaïre is the name by which the Congo, nation and river, still are known in Portuguese. President Mobutu, however, reported that, although Zaïre may have been Portuguese, it was a corruption of the Bakongo name, "Zadi," meaning "the river that swallows all others."

Even mountains did not escape. Mount Stanley, named for the Welsh-American journalist, Henry Morton Stanley, who explored vast portions of the Congo for King Leopold II, regained its traditional name of Mont Ngaliema. Congolese militants also began to pull down the statues of various Europeans in the capital city. Leopold's impressive equestrian statue, which stood in front of the Zaïrian Parliament building and Stanley's statue atop Mont Ngaliema, overlooking the city, were both removed. From the capital city of Kinshasa throughout the vast republic a similar renaming campaign was begun.

Then came perhaps the most startling change of all, a new Nationality Law. It obliged everyone in the country who had a foreign-sounding first name or family name to change it to a Zaïrian one. All Zaïrians born of a Zaïrian mother and of a foreign father were told that they would have to take the mother's name. All persons who exercised official functions of any kind, and who kept their European names automatically would lose their citizenship. Even priests and nuns of Zaïrian nationality were not exempted. Failure to do so would result in their being considered as foreign missionaries, and as aliens, not citizens.

Authenticity rarely was presented to the Zaïrian people in harshly uncompromising ways. Rather, it insinuated itself into their lives. Popular music, folklore, television, and party rallies took up the theme. To be caught up in it, to be a part of it, was at once an exhilarating and unforgettable experience.

If anyone had asked the question, "Why all this attention to Authenticity?" the Zaïrian journalist, Sakombi Inongo, had a ready answer:

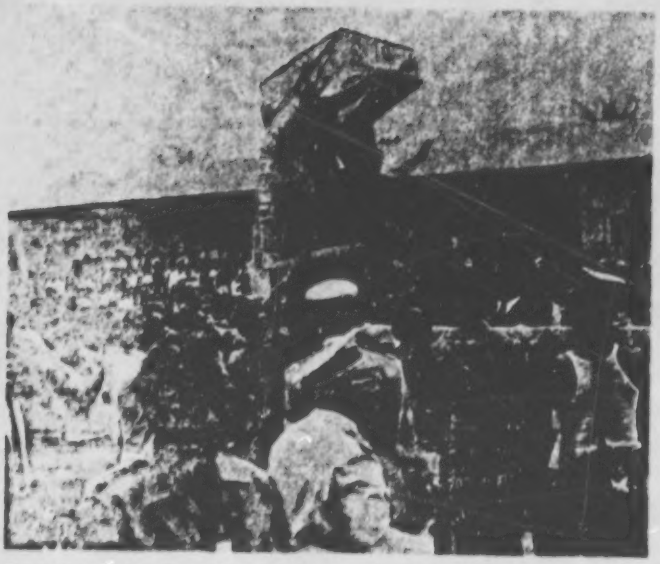
> The reason is that in the immense task of building a nation, which requires so much energy and so much original genius, there is at least one factor on which we should economize: time.

Women of Zaïre parading in support of President Mobutu in a village upcountry.

In past centuries peoples who threw off the colonial alienation—most of the world's peoples, to tell the truth—reconstructed their own culture and rediscovered their own souls. They did this unconsciously with the means available at the time. Some of them required centuries to do it.

In the period in which we live we must be conscious and we cannot spend years waiting. To give our ideas a basis, let us set eight years, the eight years that separate us from our objective—1980. By that time nobody must talk about Authenticity except as the recollection of an historic victory. Then people will not think about having recourse to it, for the Zaïrian people will have become themselves, and recourse to Authenticity will come about naturally, automatically, as a mere reflex. It will be part of ourselves; it will be our nature. At that time Zaïrian culture will be able to assimilate—without risk—the contributions of the entire world. There will be an original Zaïrian way of life which will inform the nation's every activity. Politics, letters, arts, science, our very mind will have become unchangeably Zaïrian.

In the face of such an exalted goal, is it not right that we should do things on the double? We are rather like the mountain climber who puts his back to it, summons up all his strength to reach the radiant summit.



President Mobutu hailing the welcoming crowd during one of his frequent visits to the interior.

President Sese Seko Mobutu addressing a crowd in Kinshasa.

Both President Mobutu and other Zaïrian leaders often said that Authenticity did not signify a return to paganism. Nor did it mean a complete rejection of all things Western. It implied, instead, a more discriminating attitude on the part of Zaïrians. It meant a readiness to accept what was of value in other cultures (including their technical knowledge), while maintaining their faith in and commitment to that which is authentically Zaïrian.

Will Authenticity Last?

Virtually everyone in Zaïre is at present caught up in the excitement of the mission which Authenticity embodies. They are inspired by the sense of devotion to the nation which it unquestionably implies. But will it last?

Zaïre, like a number of other countries, is ruled by a man of extraordinary and charismatic character. Persons who have known General Mobutu for years and who have had occasion to observe him closely all attest to his courage, his dedication, and above all, to his self-confidence. This last is derived at least in part, no doubt, from the knowledge that, after years of watching from the sidelines, he is now himself the undisputed master of one of the largest and richest countries in Africa. In Zaïre politics is a blend of compromise, coercion, and theater. Mobutu has understood this very well. He performs with equal astuteness and dexterity in all three realms.

Authenticity differs in a number of important respects from older, better-known concepts such as Leopold Senghor's *negritude*. *Negritude* defines the African cultural values primarily in racial terms. Mobutu's philosophy is universalistic. Its precepts are as accessible and relevant to Americans or Europeans as to Africans themselves. The message it seeks to convey is a very simple one: that unless a people take a legitimate pride in their national heritage—in what they have been as well as in what they are—they will never be at ease, happy, or free.

Authenticity is not reserved for intellectuals. It is a philosophy belonging to the people. Individual identification with it does not depend upon having been to school or having lived in a city where he was exposed to European influences. Authenticity has been readily embraced by upcountry people. They feel themselves to be the most "authentic" of Zaïrians. They are flattered to be regarded—by the nation's leaders and by the city people who for years disdained them—as the custodians of ancestral values. It is an entirely new experience for many of them, and intensely gratifying.

The real importance of Authenticity is not to be measured by such superficial changes as the adoption of new names and a new flag. It must be measured in terms of the fundamental change in attitudes and spirit that is evident everywhere in Zaïre today.

THE INDEPENDENCE STRUGGLE IN THE CENTRAL AFRICAN FEDERATION

Africa's equatorial region included the old French and Belgian Congo and what the British called Central Africa. The region was another center of worldwide attention in the 1950s.

In the British colonies a white minority dominated a huge, largely silent African majority. They ruled by virtue of arms and repressive legislation. The British territories, Nyasaland and the two Rhodesias, were dissimilar in many ways. Nyasaland (now Malawi) was too poor to be of much interest alone. Northern Rhodesia (Zambia) had vast copper deposits. Southern Rhodesia (Rhodesia) was a cattle and tobacco economy and focus for white settlement. The colonial administration joined the three in the Central African Federation in 1953.

Britain hoped the Central African Federation would combine each country's resources for mutual benefit. The copper industry of Northern Rhodesia was to be coordinated with the secondary industries and agriculture of Southern Rhodesia. Both would draw from Nyasaland's pool of excess labor. But the Federation was forced by a London-based government upon unwilling partners.

Britain hoped to avoid in the Federation the type of violence that had occurred in Kenya. The Federation was supposed to promote what was then termed "African advancement." Whatever the Federation did, it was too slow for most Africans and too fast for the privileged white communities.

Northern Rhodesia (Zambia)

A great deal was at stake in Northern Rhodesia. There were valuable copper deposits, and an enormous European investment in the mining industry. There was a sizable white population as well. All these factors tended to promote an inflexible approach to emerging African nationalism. Like Nyasaland, there were few Europeans settled on agricultural land. On the Copperbelt, however, whites monopolized all but the least skilled jobs. The European miners thought the great companies would back them against demands for more rapid African advancement. (In the end, they did not.)

There were other grievances. Many Northern Rhodesian whites believed that the Copperbelt carried the burden of finance within the Federation. Southern Rhodesia, on the other hand, had about three times as many Europeans. They controlled the government which the wealth in copper made possible.

Gradually the mining companies in Northern Rhodesia passively consented to African majority rule. Kenneth Kaunda and the United National Independence Party peacefully led the country, renamed Zambia, to independence in 1964.

The Role of the Copper Companies

One test area for the doctrine of "partnership" was industry. Industry was concentrated on the Copperbelt, a compact area containing about 14 per cent of the world's supply of copper. There two huge companies—Oppenheimer's Anglo-American based in Johannesburg, South Africa, and American Metal in New York, called the shots. They paid some of the world's highest wages to a large group of Europeans on the Copperbelt. A much larger number of Africans worked in the mines. They formed a labor elite relative to other Africans. But they received far less in wages than any European.

The year 1955 might be considered crucial. If the "partnership" experiment was to succeed, it had to have the backing of the miners—all of them. A Field Staff Associate, Edwin S. Munger, went to the Copperbelt that year to find out what people really thought about "African advancement." This was the cornerstone of partnership's ideal. He recorded the following comments. All the quotes are from European miners for it was they who exercised power.

o o o o o

"Sure I work in the mine—nearly every man in here does—sure I work underground—I came out here for African Lakes*—come from Edinburgh—bought up my contract for two hundred quid** so's I could stick in at the mine—I can save on my base pay—I'm saving a thousand quid a year with the

*The name of a copper mining company.

**Quid is English slang for the pound sterling (£).

copper bonus and retirement scheme—a working man in Glasgow or Edinburgh be lucky to save fifty quid for two weeks at Blackpool and live in a hole the rest of the year—there has got to be this African advancement—our union will slow it up but it's got to come—I don't say much at union meetings because some of the men feel pretty sore about the natives but it'll come—RST* is pushing these natives too hard—the Anglo-American chaps know better—they've had more experience with natives—when I came out I thought I'd save up and take myself back to Scotland—took my first leave there—last time I went down to the south coast—you know out Durban way [South Africa]—some new plots being opened up there look pretty good—I used to be in the grocery business—not enough profit margin in groceries—I'd like tobacco and magazines like this bloke down the street there—better profit margin and shorter hours—I prefer Natal to Scotland—maybe Salisbury or Bulawayo would be all right—better chance for the kiddies in Africa—Roan's a good company—I give them a day's work."

ooo

"Hell man where do you come from—jy is 'n Amerikaner—ek dink jy is 'n baie goeie man**—I like it here—a man's got a chance—too much bloody racialism in the Union—Jock and I are good friends—he doesn't have to praat die taal—the Scotsman the Welshman the Yugoslav the Pole all get along here in this bar and all over this country—I left the Union in forty-nine—worked on the railways for twenty years—I'm an Afrikaner but the way they treated some of the English types what came out here and worked to build up the railways—wouldn't let them earn maximum salary for five years so's they could earn a decent pension just because their Afrikaans wasn't too good—you from Stellenbosch—too many bloody Nationalists down there—we get along all right in this country—like I said—except for the bloody *munt****—let the *munt* advance—give him every job in the place—it's all right with me as long as you make it in a thousand...years—no bloody *kaffir***** is going to take this man's job."

*Rhodesian Selection Trust, an American Metal holding company with headquarters in Rhodesia.

**Afrikaans, one of the two official languages of South Africa.

***Slang for African.

****Also slang for African.

ooo

"I got a second engineer's ticket—I've done well here—don't mind ya knowing it—I was lucky to have ten quid at one time at home—now I can write me a check for a hundred pounds without thinking about it—figured I'd stay out ten years—done me nine and going home—had a bit of an argument with a couple of the boys—always knew I'd go home—but I got no kick about the company like some of these guys who stagger out of here to their Jaguars—but I'm forty-two—in five years I'll be too old to start in me own business—business that's me cup o'tea—I got a few thousand so's I can have me a nice shop—what I want is to be able to see me people—and I like to go down to the local* for a few when I feel like it—they drink a lot here but there ain't no locals like home—besides I want to raise me the odd pigeon or two—I've lost a bloody fortune on them here—must have fed half the bloody hawks in the country—time I got me family home—I want me grandchildren to speak English—now my daughter's so lazy she can't walk herself down to the swimming pool—the African has got to get a chance but I'm glad I won't be here.

ooo

"I've been here seven years—went to the university after being demobbed** and then drifted up here—I like the country—it's changed a lot since I came—much nicer now—my wife's a Rhodesian from the south—she doesn't like the Union of South Africa and I wouldn't go to the United Kingdom—where could I make money like this—the climate isn't bad for my little girls and the schools are much better—this is my country—I like it—the African has to get a better job but that takes time—you can't teach him to be responsible—but it has to come and fighting about it won't help."

oooooo

"Another forty-six men from all over the mine broaden the picture," Munger wrote. "Most of the United Kingdom workers look forward to opening a fish-and-chips shop at a British seaside resort. Most of the South Africans plan to return to their

*Tavern.

**Demobilized. Leaving military service.

native land. Nearly all the Afrikaners—there were sixteen—want to use their savings to buy a farm in the Transvaal or the Free State. However, two said they 'hadn't saved a tickey' but they'd get started as soon as one bought a few things and the other paid for his 1955 car. Nine men were claiming the Copperbelt as their home. From their conversation, I inferred that several others will probably put down roots even though they say they plan to leave."

"Perhaps half the men who plan to leave want to make every penny possible," Munger observed, "then never look back." They want to keep Africans "in their place," but not if it means strikes or interruption of earnings. A few of them argued with sincerity that African advancement was essential to the future of the country. But all except one man said he would be gone when the Africans took over.

Surprisingly, trouble came first in Nyasaland. It was the least-known and least-developed country. As late as 1962 there were only 9,400 whites in the entire country. Most of those were either missionaries or government employees. Europeans and a few Africans produced an inferior tea and some rather good tobacco. There was little else to note about what today is Malawi. Yet that country was the most reluctant to enter the Federation. Africans feared that a government dominated by whites in the Rhodesias would forestall indefinitely Nyasaland's independence.

Credit for the uproar in Nyasaland, and perhaps the violence, must go to Dr. Hastings Kamazu Banda. He returned there in 1958 after 40 years abroad. His arrival in Nyasaland sparked the independence struggle. Banda's career—education in exile, imprisonment in his native land—is typical of the colonial experience of many Africans who became nationalist leaders.

Britain feared that the confrontation in Nyasaland would be as violent as in Kenya. But they had far less at stake. They would not hang onto the colony if it was to cost money, lives, and embarrassing questions in Parliament.

There were brief outbreaks of violence in 1959. Banda, and almost every other educated African in Nyasaland, was detained by colonial officials. But the British acted with restraint. They tried only to keep the peace so that they might withdraw gradually and gracefully. When the British intent became clear, African agitation decreased. Colonial officials worked cooperatively to train Africans in government administration. Transition from British to African rule was smooth.

Nyasaland was renamed Malawi. It became an independent republic on July 6, 1966. Dr. Hastings Kamazu Banda was elected President.

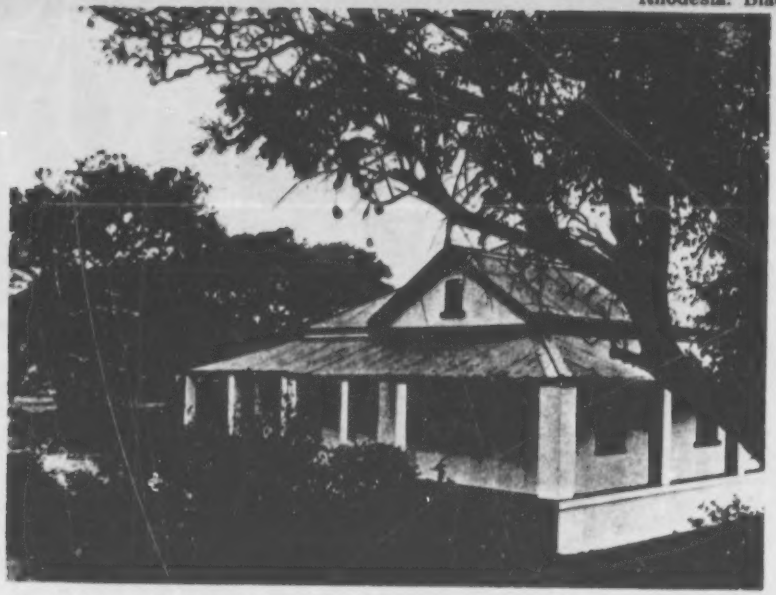
Southern Rhodesia

The only people who *really* wanted the Central African Federation to succeed were the Southern Rhodesians. At least the white Southern-Rhodesians wanted Federation. They were outnumbered by black Africans at least twenty to one.

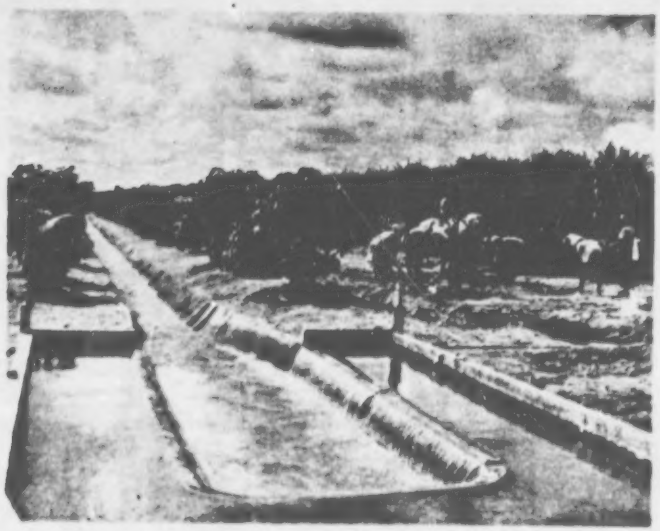
Some Africans gave provisional support to Federation. The crucial issue was political representation. Africans asked for a "one man-one vote" system. They also demanded an end to legal discrimination against Africans. Africans wanted equal opportunities for employment. They also asked to be free to aspire to the same social status as Europeans. Most of the black nationalist leaders were considered moderate by the standards of the day. They were willing to accept policies aimed at gradual reform.

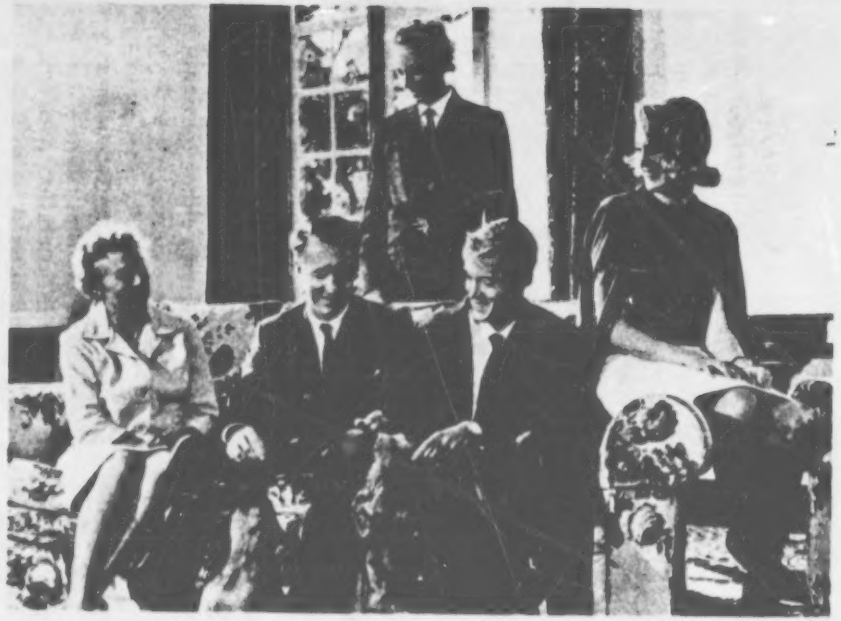
Rhodesian whites, on the other hand, feared that to give an inch one day would mean a mile the next day. Many of the Europeans were settled on the best agricultural land. They controlled big agricultural estates. The cities were theirs almost entirely. Southern Rhodesian whites were uncompromising in their defiance of black aspirations. They were fearful of minority status under conditions of political equality.

When the Central African Federation was dissolved on December 31, 1963, Southern Rhodesia became a self-governing colony of Britain. Europeans in the colony and those in England could not reach agreement on terms for full independence. The issue was African political rights. In November 1965, Ian Smith, the colony's Prime Minister, declared independence. Despite economic sanctions and United Nations censure, Rhodesia has remained independent.



The Smith family home in Selukwe.





Counterclockwise from lower left: (1) Irrigating sugar cane at Hippo Valley. Most African labor is of this stoop variety, here doing maintenance work. The white man on horseback is supervising. (2) Prime Minister Ian Smith and his family. (3) African workers and white supervisor at the Rhodesian Iron and Steel plant at Que Que.

A partial view of Algiers looking toward the East.

ALGERIA THEN

The war for independence in Algeria began on November 1, 1954. Psychologically it had begun years earlier. On that date, however, the National Liberation Front (FLN) opened military action against the French colonial administration and its armed forces. Bitter fighting continued. In 1958, the Algerians set up a provisional government in Cairo, Egypt. It broadcast radio messages to "freedom fighters" in Algeria. Also it gathered international support for the Algerian cause.

The Algerian revolt against colonials became a passionate issue in both France and Algeria. France itself was on the brink of civil war. Acts of terrorism were common events in both countries. A secret organization, the OAS (Organisation de l'armée Secrete) was organized to "keep Algeria French." The OAS was composed of French colonists and military who opposed official French policy in Algeria.

President Charles de Gaulle called for a French national vote to decide Algeria's future. The referendum was held on January 6-8, 1961 both in France and in Algeria. The vote favoring Algerian independence was almost three to one in France and two to one in Algeria. Yet the OAS continued to work against these majority views and official policies.

French settlers in Algeria, the *colons* and the OAS increased terrorist activities. The FLN fought back. Violence and tragedy were daily occurrences.

Algerians were shot at random from passing cars. Women and children were murdered and left to die in the gutters while others shopped and drank coffee. Bombs were exploded in libraries, at lunch counters, in taxis. Meanwhile a cease-fire was being negotiated secretly. The FLN and the government of Charles de Gaulle were parties to

the agreement. On July 3, 1962, Algeria was proclaimed independent. Ahmed Ben Bella became Prime Minister, then President of Algeria.

When Algeria was a French colony, the capital was Paris. France, especially Paris, provided the administrative and cultural hub for colonies such as Algeria. French behavior was the model. French policies were the law. Travel and communication and education centered for French colonial peoples around Paris.

The capital of independent Algeria is Algiers, one of the major metropolitan centers of North Africa. A walk along Algiers' streets in early 1963 gave observers a feeling for the Algerian situation at independence.

The mood of the city was reflected in the mass of handbills and posters pasted on walls. "People! This property belongs to you. Take care of it." City buses carried an admonition: "This vehicle belongs to the people. It is also yours—if you respect the employees and help the old and the infirm." The signs were in French, although the official language of Algeria was Arabic. The government understood that literate Algerians had learned to read French. More people spoke Arabic but they could not read it. Thus messages written in the "colonial" language, French, were completely Algerian. They carried forward the egalitarian and puritanical principles of the Algerian social revolution.

Radios played in open windows and streetside cafés. Ordinary Algerians had been politicized by the long struggle for independence. They listened to the radio for every sign of change. They wanted evidence that new government policies would actually improve their lives. Some of the broadcasts were in French, some in Arabic. The French language broadcasts stressed building Arab socialism. Islamic religious and moral influence dominated the Arabic language programs. Koranic readings and comments were common. There were long sermons on proper behavior and resolution of problems according to religious law. The government-controlled radio stations and press demanded austerity and purity. Government officials were told to set a good example. There was to be no pomp in independent Algeria. The audience was sober, quiet, reflective—and expectant.

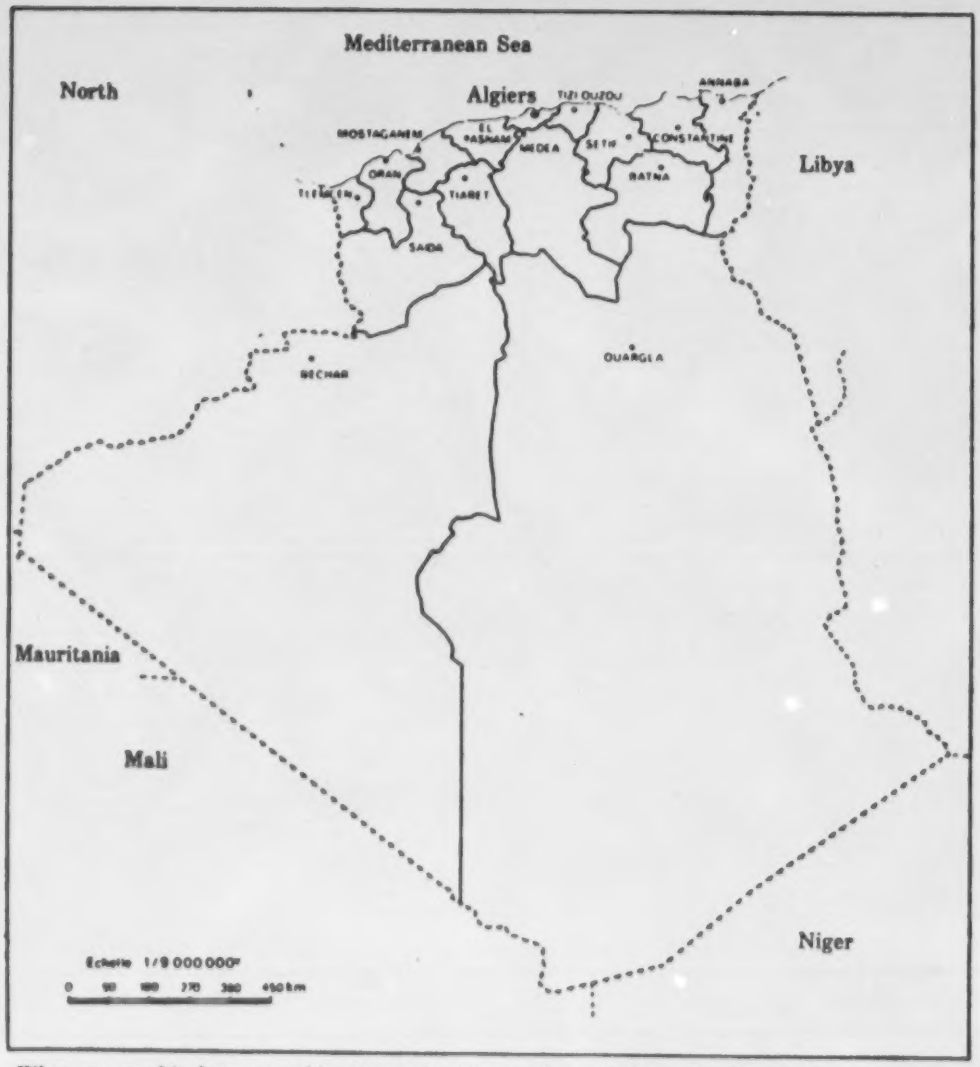
Algiers had always been a European city. It was built by the French for the French. Algerians were concentrated in the "Casbah." They lived in this special all-Algerian quarter, and in settlements around the city's edge. By 1954 the population of Algiers was about half Algerian, half European, but the two populations were segregated. Algerians appeared in the European sections only as laborers. After the revolution, Algerians went everywhere. Because many Europeans left, they outnumbered Europeans seven to one. Algerians could be seen standing outside fashionable shops. Parisian style shops remained open for business but empty of customers. Most Algerians were unemployed.

Wages and prices came to be totally out of balance. The wartime years had been abnormal. They provided heavy military spending and virtually full employment, even for the unskilled. Because Algeria had been a European settlement colony, few Algerian workers had acquired technical skills. The war was over. So were the jobs.

Square of the Amir Abdelkader, Algiers. It was formerly named after General Bugeand who "pacified" Algeria between 1830 and 1947.

ALGERIA
Administrative Boundaries

State boundaries .....
Wilaya (Province) boundaries _____
Wilaya capital •



What geographic factors could account for the small northern and large southern Algerian provinces?

The departure of many Europeans further depressed the Algerian economy. Agriculture stagnated at prewar levels. The war had destroyed homes, livestock, vineyards, and equipment. Urban Algerians, about three million people in 1961, earned only around $250 each year. Half were unemployed in 1963. Some six million peasants earned about $50 annually in 1961. They were destitute then and remained destitute two years later. President Ben Bella estimated that perhaps four and one-half million people depended on some form of assistance—mostly surplus European and American food—just to stay alive.

Algeria had been exhausted by the long war for independence. The FLN's fervor gave way to fatigue. There was exhilaration when independence was announced. But Algerians seemed to realize that building a new life was not easy. Economically and psychologically more struggle lay ahead. It was hard for ordinary Algerians. It was hard for the French-educated elite who remained. The story of a typical encounter, in July 1962, is illustrative.

* * * * *

81

Lakhdar Brahimi was a young official in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. He returned to Algiers after many years abroad working with the FLN. He went to an apartment building to renew the acquaintance of some old friends. In the hallway he met an elderly Frenchwoman whom he had known in his youth. Outside the building was the chaotic noise of independence celebrations. The little European lady greeted him with that purely French politeness of formal sincerity:

"Ah, M. Brahimi, it's good to see you again. It has been a long time."

"Yes, madame, several years since we last met."

"You were in France, were you not? Studying at the university?"

"That is correct, madame."

"And now you have come back. How nice. Did you finish your studies, Mr. Brahimi?"

"No, madame, I was prevented from completing them."

"Oh, what a pity. It is always sad when young people are unable to finish their education. Did you go to work then in France?"

"No, madame," and he hesitated. "I did not work in France."

"What have you been doing then all this time, M. Brahimi? Why did you not come back home to see us?"

"I was unable to come ov[illegible] madame."

"Unable to come back? I don't understand, M. Brahimi. Did you not have the passage?"

"No, it was not that, madame. I... was called on to do other things."

"But, if you did not come back and you did not work in France, where did you go? Did you go abroad, M. Brahimi? Were you traveling?"

"Yes, I was, madame. I visited many countries and I worked in them."

"Ah. Was your work interesting, M. Brahimi? May I ask what sort of work were you doing?" The jungle of noise seemed to close in on them from the doorway.

"Well, it was political work, madame."

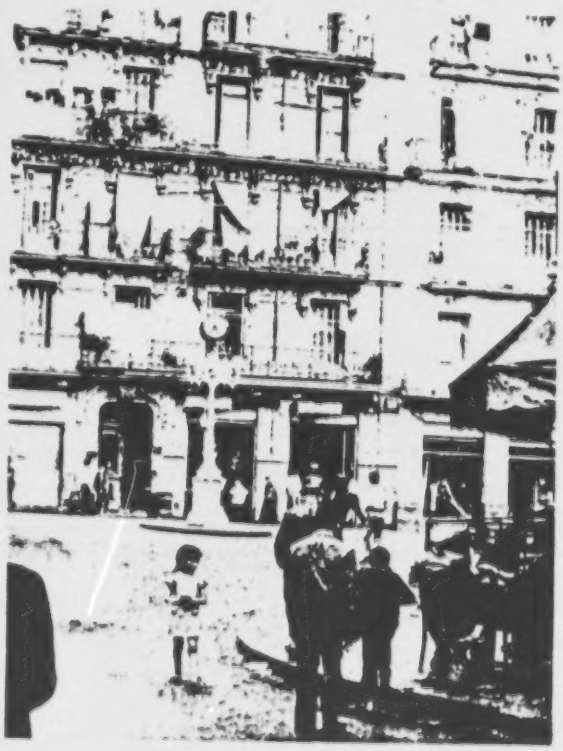
"Ah, I see." Her phrase was automatic. But she was beginning to see the truth for the first time, dimly and falteringly. The little old lady began to see a vague connection between the conversation with the nice young Algerian gentleman and the raucous mob outside. But she still could not fully grasp or believe.

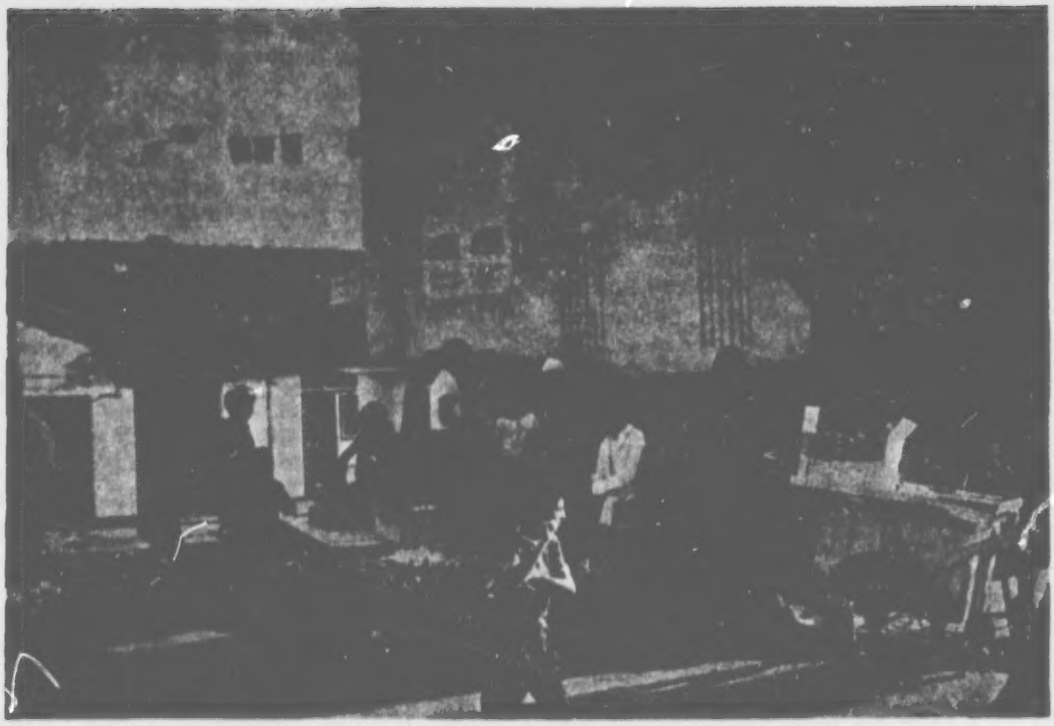
"But, M. Brahimi," and she pointed toward the street. "You were not, you are not... with them?" *She could hardly utter the word. He was embarrassed and pained. They looked at each other hesitantly for a minute before he found the soft, measured words.*

"Yes, madame. I was. I am with them."

Then there was only silence. Between them the unwavering stare of timorous hope reached out, trying to understand and knowing it could not.

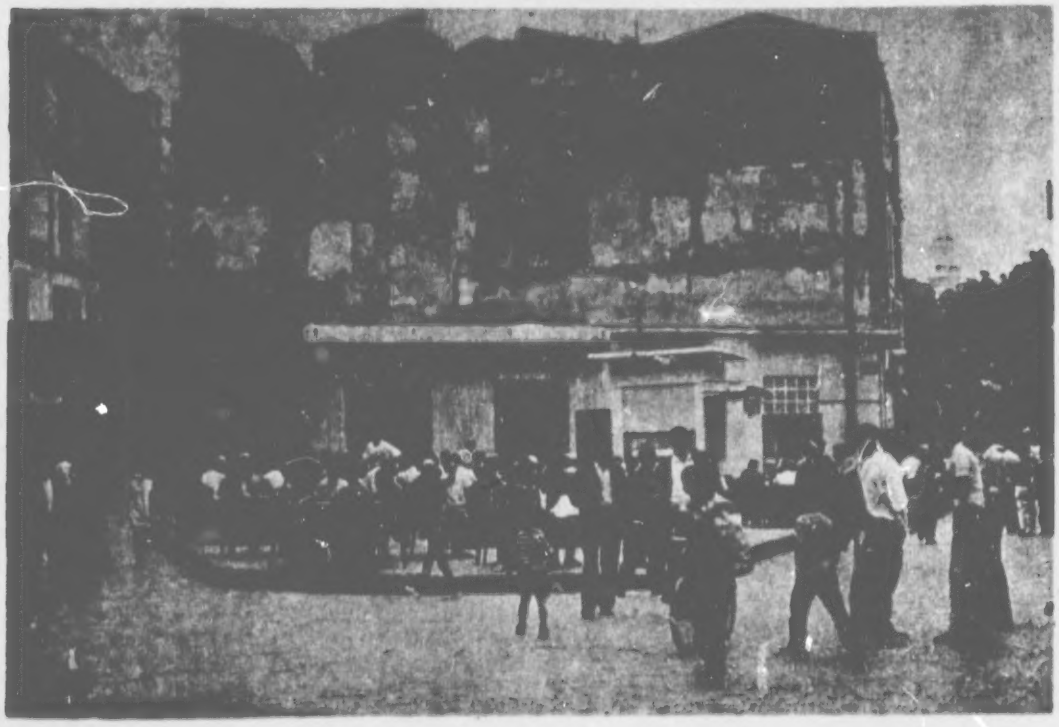
The former heart of the European lower-middle class in Algiers, the Place des Trois Horloges, Bab-el-Oued.





A town fountain at Bouira, Kabylia. ▲

▼ A café in the old part of the city of Annaba (ex-Bône).



Colonel Houari Boumedienne, President of Algeria, announced a four-year plan for economic development beginning in 1974. It is more than a plan to raise the Gross National Product (GNP) and per capita income. Its main purpose is to carry on in economic terms the war for liberation.

The colonial period in Algeria was more than a confrontation over time of a European, largely Christian minority with an indigenous, largely Muslim majority. There was violence, racism, and segregation. There was also the deep cultural imprint of France. The language, living styles and eating habits, intellectual life and bureaucratic procedures of contemporary Algeria all reflect this French influence. Economically and culturally France and Algeria are bound.

Industry

Algerian leaders have chosen to emphasize complex industrial projects using advanced technology. But the country lacks the skilled manpower. During the colonial period, education was open to only a few Algerians. The language of instruction was French. Little technical training was available. Since independence Algeria has extended the school system. The use of Arabic has been greatly expanded at all levels. It will be years, however, before the country can produce enough graduates for developmental needs. Algeria remains dependent on imported, skilled manpower—engineers, architects, project advisors, agronomists.

The greatest industrial asset which Algeria has presently is oil. The oil and gas industry in the 1970s has contributed between 16 and 24 per cent of Algeria's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The entire industry employs only 16,000 people. The oil industry typifies the capital-intensive nature of Algeria's economic development. Where can ordinary, unskilled Algerians of working age find jobs?

Agriculture

Agriculture employs about 60 per cent of all economically active Algerians. Yet agriculture contributes only about 15 per cent of GDP. Most important, less than half the income of rural people derives from working the land. The bulk of rural income comes from money earned by migrants to Algerian cities or Europe.

Algeria is a textbook example of a dual economy. Europeans in colonial Algeria owned the best agricultural land. This ranged from vineyards in the west to grain-growing plains in the east. Their methods were modern, mechanized, and capital-intensive. Products from estates owned by French settlers called *colons* accounted for 80 per cent of exports.

After independence most of the Europeans left and their farms were nationalized. The government set up a series of state-owned farms. Between 1962-1965 the farms were badly managed and production was halved. Under Boumedienne's direction, the farms have been regrouped to form workers' cooperatives. Some of the cooperatives have been relatively successful. They also have the advantage of employing more people—115,000 full-time and 120,000 temporary laborers.

The so-called "traditional" sector of Algerian agriculture is in trouble too. As in colonial times, it is people-rich and production-poor. About six million people—half the population—earn their livelihood from this land. The traditional sector includes mountain, steppe, and pre-desert area. It is dependent on inadequate and inconsistent rainfall. As much as 50 per cent lies fallow every year to recover some fertility. Erosion by water and wind is widespread and overgrazing is common. Every year the Sahara desert subtracts cultivable land while the population growth adds to the number of inhabitants. Average farm income here is equal to about US$34 per year.

Algerian leaders do not intend to tie the economic future to agriculture. Agriculture is of secondary but critical importance in the four-year development plan. But a major effort is under way to modernize and intensify methods of production. The modern sector is almost totally under state control. It can be more easily integrated with general development planning. The traditional sector is based on private ownership and subsistence farming. It will be difficult to change the agricultural technology unless there is reorganization of social and economic relationships. For example, the planned reform for the traditional sector includes the takeover of tribal, communal, and religious property.

Transformation of the agricultural sector, modern and traditional, is crucial to Algeria's economic future. It is less important for the food it will produce than the jobs it will create. Most important, it will generate buying power among the bulk of Algeria's population. Without this market for industrial and consumer goods, industrial development itself will fail. Algeria must industrialize in order to modernize agriculture. Agriculture must modernize to absorb the products of industry.

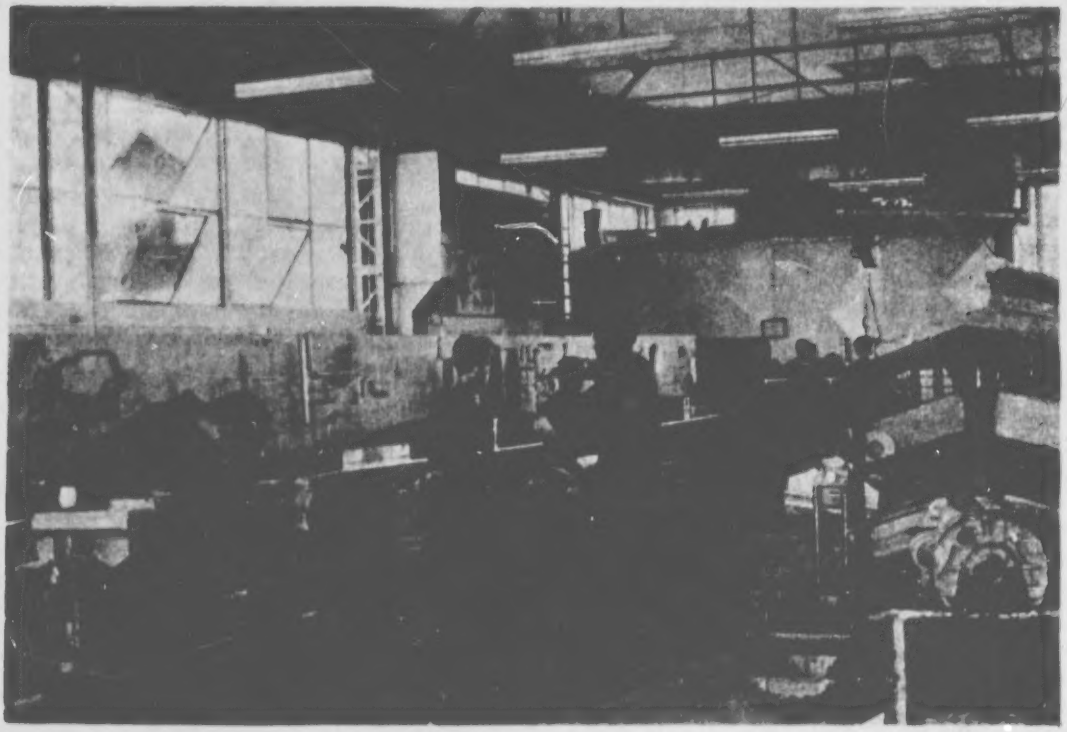
Employment

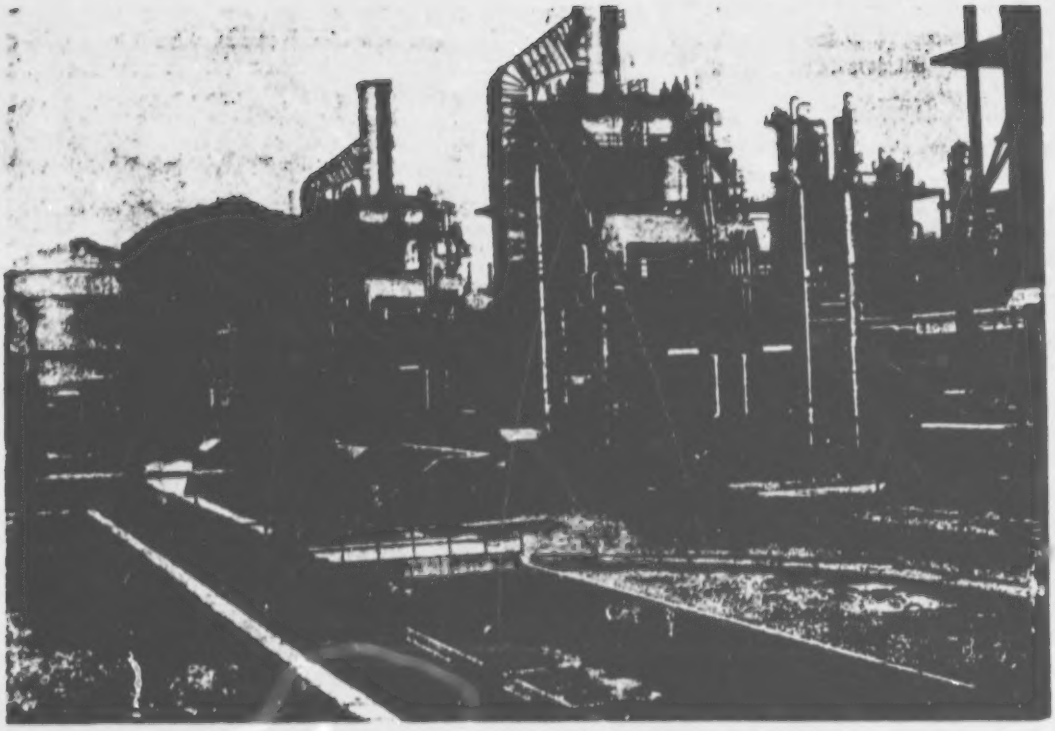
Fully one-third of males in the 15-65 age bracket that defines the work force are unemployed. For every one industrial worker, there are three who are unemployed. The four-year development plan calls for the creation of 68,000 new jobs a year outside agriculture. Yet, population growth alone will contribute 120,000 new job-seekers annually. Given the more rapid increase of population over jobs, unemployment will probably get worse.

One reason for high unemployment is urban migration. Hundreds of thousands of Algerians have fled rural poverty and *under*employment to look for jobs in the cities. The urban population is increasing at a rate of 4.2 per cent annually. Rural areas increase at 2.8 per cent.

Algerian workmen at the "Tuberie," El-Hadjar Steel Complex, Annaba.

▼ Engine Assembly at the SONACOME Tractor Plant, Constantine.





Gas Liquefaction Plant at Skikda (ex-Philippeville).

Migration to the cities has intensified unemployment. Migration abroad has partially compensated. About 300,000 Algerians are employed abroad, mostly in France. Counting their wives and dependents, perhaps one million Algerians live in Europe. Worker migration is a social safety valve. It is also a major source of the hard currency vital to Algeria's development.

There is some fear among Algerian leaders that foreign migration is a two-edged sword. The offspring of migrants may lose their emotional ties to Algeria. They may choose not to send money home to poorer relatives. Someday Algerians want these workers to return home. They can use the skills acquired in Europe. In the meantime, the government does its best to assure that the flow of cash from Europe to Algeria continues.

Outlook for the Future

Algeria's development plans are bold. Failure would be hard to hide. The risks are enormous. Urban unemployment could boil over creating social disorder and political instability. Agricultural underemployment and rapid population growth add further dangerous pressures. Forced return of Algerian workers from Europe could be disastrous. It could flood the domestic market with experienced but dissatisfied workers.

There are some positive factors working in Algeria's favor. The world energy crisis guarantees Algeria growing profits from oil and gas.

Algerians began their development drive *before* rapid population growth could overwhelm the effort. Some economists expect Algerians will voluntarily limit family size as higher living standards are achieved. Also; Algeria needs skilled and technical workers. The planned rate of economic expansion could absorb all the graduates from Algerian universities and technical institutes.

Perhaps the most favorable factor is psychological. The government has set the style of sacrifice and hard work by its own example. There are individual cases of corruption but these are few. The expectation of corruption is not widespread. Austerity is shared at all levels. The exhilaration of newly-won independence has passed. Still present among Algerians are a militant spirit and the will to succeed.

Most African states achieved independence in the late 1950s and early 1960s. The leaders of the new states accepted the territorial boundaries of the old colonies. Somalia was the only major exception although other countries also complained. Some called the boundaries "unnatural" and "artificial." The boundaries often did not coincide with ethnic, linguistic, or social divisions. People speaking the same language were split by boundaries as between Ghana and Togo. The culturally similar people were separated by the boundary between Dahomey and Western Nigeria. There are many other examples. On the other hand, Nigeria included in its many regions peoples who thought of themselves as very dissimilar. These examples, too, could be multiplied again and again. All over Africa people were worried about conflict arising over border disputes.

External Borders

The borders between African countries were lines on maps drawn in European chart rooms. Some were drawn in the eighteenth century, more in the nineteenth. Others were negotiated after the Second World War. None of the borders was established by Africans. No local political processes determined their location. Nevertheless, these were the internationally recognized boundaries between African countries. The land and people were divided by decisionmakers outside Africa.

There were good reasons, however, for retaining the old, European boundaries in post-colonial Africa. These were the boundaries of the colonial experience. All the modern elements of the economic and administrative systems had developed inside the colonial borders. Most nationalist leaders wished to stimulate modernization in their countries. They had to build on what existed. Thus the goals of modern development reinforced the existing boundaries.

Somalia: An Exceptional Case

Somalia differed from most other newly independent states in several ways. It was the only African country which seemed to fit the model of the European nation-state. Ethnic, cultural, linguistic, religious, and territorial boundaries roughly coincided. Somalia's Muslim population was almost 100 per cent homogeneous when the country achieved independence in 1960. And modernizing leadership was still linked closely to traditional authority. There was only the most minimal split in attitudes between urban and rural populations.

Somalis define the political community to include all people who share the same genealogical system. All Somalis claim descent from a common ancestor. Some who share that system lived at least part of the year under Kenyan or Ethiopian jurisdiction. This fact presents another kind of boundary problem. Many Somalis are pastoralists. They follow their herds from place to place with the seasons. Pastoralists tend to ignore borders. Borders do not appear to exist as meaningful features on the environment. Borders are seen as legal fiction, not as physical barriers. Settled agriculturalists, on the other hand, tend to accept boundaries as logical limits to farming activities.

Somalia's pastoralists pressed territorial claims in the neighboring countries. The government took up their cause. It pursued territorial claims against Kenya and Ethiopia since independence. The dispute has been a recurrent threat to regional order.

Internal Divisions

Internal recognition of an independent state with a specified territory was one step. It took place outside Africa. But it took many steps to create modern nations in Africa. Internal activities which contributed to the concept of a nation were more problematic.

A nation is defined by the people's common loyalty to a culture, language, territory, historical traditions, and institutions. Nations existed in Africa before the colonial period. The Ashanti Kingdom in Ghana, the Bakongo in Zaïre (Congo), the Buganda in Uganda—all met the requirements for nationhood. Other national groups actually came into being during the colonial period. The Ibo of Eastern Nigeria are one example. *But the boundaries of the "traditional" nations were not the same as those of the modern political state.* Continued expression of loyalty to the traditional nation has come to be called "tribalism." Tribalism seeks to promote local interests over those of the common

welfare. Tribalism, like economic development, has been a major problem to African governments from colonial times to the present.

The interplay between traditional and modern in any society is complex. The lines are seldom clear. This is true in Africa, in the United States, or elsewhere. Take the problem of leadership as an example.

African politicians sought to become leaders of entire nations. They needed to demonstrate their claims to represent all the people, or at least most of them. The means to do this was universal suffrage—one person, one vote. But the democratic notion this implies had not been a colonial ideal. In the newly independent countries democracy came into existence at the highest level of government. Democratic mechanisms were new to people at the local level. They were not used to being asked to vote on policies affecting their own future. Most Africans were living in rural areas with poor communications resources. As an electorate, their perceptions were largely local. They had no experience and little understanding of policy-making for the interests of an entire nation.

Thus the modern democratic format for political participation was often footless. It existed more in form than substance. The form could be manipulated by individuals for their private benefit. This is one of the themes that runs through much modern African literature. Ayi Kwei Armah titled his novel about corruption in Ghana *The Beautiful Ones Are Not Yet Born*. That is, perfect, incorruptible people do not yet run the society. Nevertheless, the ideal remains.

The fragile nature of democracy created many problems. Democratic forms could be manipulated by factions. These could be based on ethnic (tribal) interests. Others might form around religious or regional interests. The military often formed another focus for special interests. Over and over, the tensions caused by rapid change were expressed in the political arena. Civil war in Nigeria and in Burundi have been extreme expressions of a common problem.

This map of Ghana shows the areas in which distinctive tribal groups were dominant. Ashanti occupied the south-central area in the twentieth century but in the nineteenth century their influence reached much further north. Ghana's total land area is roughly equivalent to that of the state of Oregon.

Source: *Atlas of Population Characteristics*, Accra, 1964.

Political Authority—Modern and Traditional

Nearly all African nationalist leaders were on a political tightrope when their countries became independent. Many had achieved power on the strength of support from traditional leaders. Kenyatta used the support of the economically dominant Kikuyu people in Kenya. When he became President, it was difficult to convince non-Kikuyu that he also represented their interests. Kwame Nkrumah in Ghana chose another strategy. The traditional political elite represented an alternative to national allegiance. Nkrumah tried to destroy their power. Instead, he sought to build on the image of a national "founding father." He wanted Ghanaians to think of him the way people in the

United States view George Washington. Ghanaians, he hoped, would identify with the nation, not local authority.

The Modernizing Elite

Colonial society permitted little popular political participation. Major political decisions at the national level were made by a few colonial administrators. In the newly independent African country, decisions were made by a few leaders at the top. Few common people challenged their right to do so. It appeared to them that the system was as it always had been. Only the people had changed.

These national leaders were, for the most part, a modernizing elite. They had received most of their education abroad or in Europeanized schools in Africa. For the most part, it was an education consistent with an industrially advanced society. But the countries they governed in Africa were not industrialized. The new leaders wanted their own people to benefit from modernization as quickly as possible. Thus they demanded both independence *and* industrialization.

Who was the modern African elite? It included government bureaucrats and clerks. It drew from the labor elite of mine, railway, and dock workers. Like the political elite, they linked their country's lack of development to foreign domination. Hostility was directed toward the colonial rulers. Anti-colonialism brought together people of different languages, customs, and religions. We have called this response nationalistic. But unity was based on recognition of a common enemy. It was also an assertion of the worth of Africans, of Black people. In the days immediately following independence, Pan-African feeling was often as strong as national patriotism. Few ordinary people felt themselves to be Nigerians, Kenyans, or Congolese. To create such a national identity has been the task of the national parties and of every national leader.

In northern Kenya, the seminomadic Boran people are at a crucial transitional point in their history. Members of the group, especially the older ones, continue to live their lives in a traditional manner. Others are being formally educated in Western-style schools. Still others are working as clerks in the government bureaucracy, or participating in local level political decisions.

Independence produced a kind of euphoria. African leaders had known that this would soon wear off. Sovereignty, once achieved, was not enough. It did not automatically bring national unity. Nor did independence alone provide the means to manage "underdeveloped" and dependent economies.

But many people expected—at least hoped for—a rapid improvement in living conditions. These expectations built up during the decolonization period throughout Africa. Later, these hopes were reinforced by governments and the press. Low cost transistor radios, television, and popular magazines carried the message.Governments were under constant pressure to produce real benefits for the people. The result was an enormous increase of energy and enthusiasm. There were also certain unfortunate events and trends associated with haste and inexperience.

Some leaders chose to undertake spectacular projects to gain public favor. Such schemes, even if completed, have had uncertain economic value. Ghana's enormous and lavish convention facilities are but one of many examples. Flamboyant international politics captured the imagination of other leaders. Again, Kwame Nkrumah's example is outstanding. Becoming famous abroad came to be one way of gaining popularity at home.

There has been substantial progress nevertheless. Africa's leaders can point to solid achievements. Production and prosperity, education and health have made gains in many places in Africa.

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, most African countries wrestled with two big issues, political stability and economic development. The issues are interrelated. And although African nations shared the same problems, they chose different solutions. These fall roughly into two categories.

In Guinea, Ivory Coast, Zambia, Malawi, and even Rhodesia, foreign involvement has been the major issue. Is foreign capital necessary? Should foreign labor and management be permitted to enter or stay? How much foreign investment is enough? How much is too much? These countries have tried to balance on the tightrope between foreign aid and "neocolonialist" domination.

Liberia, Kenya, Uganda, and Somalia, on the other hand, have concentrated on problems of internal disharmony. Dissension has frequently characterized their domestic life.

Stability and Development

Ivory Coast and Guinea were both colonies of France. Yet they have differed in many respects. They have approached economic development differently. Each has attempted to create a unique national identity.

Guinea was a one-party state from the earliest days of independence. Its militant approach toward cementing national unity has been successful. The effort to avoid neocolonialist entanglements has been less successful. Eastern-European-Bloc nations have provided considerable economic assistance to Guinea's government headed by Sékou Touré. Rigid limits on personal liberty have been the pattern. Yet neither foreign aid nor internal restrictions have been enough to halt a decade of economic decline.

As things fall apart, living standards deteriorate. Citizens become angry and resentful. Sékou Touré has reacted with new policies. He did not want to be replaced by a military coup as was Nkrumah in Ghana. First, Touré attempted to establish cordial relations with other French-speaking African countries. And some of these have been financially beneficial. Slowly, and in small measure, Touré has also reopened trade with France.

Ivory Coast

In Ivory Coast the government of Houphouët-Boigny has been comparatively stable. Contrasted with Guinea, it has also been productive. Ivory Coast remained snugly within the protective economic network of the French community of nations after independence. It has been a profitable relationship.

The Ivoirien president approved policies for gradual Africanization. Sékou Touré requested that the French give up their jobs immediately after Guinea became independent. Africans in Ivory Coast have been replacing Europeans in jobs at all levels. But slowly. The pace has been steady, gradual. Boigny has been unwilling to hasten Africanization if it risked losing technical skills and efficiency. So the nation has remained dependent upon French personnel. French and even French Canadians have held many responsible positions. There

is a growing chorus of criticism. The "go slow" approach has been denounced regularly by students, laborers, and white collar workers. Today in Ivory Coast it is noticeable that the pace has quickened.

Along with demands for more rapid Africanization, there is a growing national consciousness in Ivory Coast. It is broad-based and has been expressed in several ways. One of the most significant expressions is in protests against the number of non-Ivoiriens employed in Ivory Coast. These protests are directed at Africans from Ghana and Upper Volta as well as Europeans, mainly French.

Tensions among the diverse ethnic groups within Ivory Coast remain visible or are easily uncovered. None of these, however, has been a threat to the governmental regime.

Malawi

Malawi, too, stands in contrast to Guinea. But the situation in Malawi is also quite unlike that of Ivory Coast. President Banda has created a practical policy for accommodation with the white-ruled governments to the south. Such an arrangement is necessitated both by Malawi's poverty and its geographical position. It is surrounded by white-dominated or dependent black governments. Malawi is in a uniquely dependent position. And President Banda seems to win advantages for Malawi in a situation that most African leaders could not tolerate.

The irony is that Banda was once feared by Europeans. Some say he single-handedly wrecked the Central African Federation, Britain's weak attempt to create a multiracial government. Recently he has appeared to be almost a friend. His solicitations of financial aid have been made to European nations, Israel, and the neighboring White governments in Africa. Over the years Dr. Banda has cooperated openly with South Africa. Many Malawians go there to work in the mines. They earn higher wages than they could in Malawi. But Banda regards this as a temporary humiliation. He hopes to make Malawi self-sufficient.

"What," Africans have often asked, "is Banda's objective?" Malawi's economic development seems the best answer. And the goal is little different from those of other African national leaders. But they and he differ considerably in discussions of how best to achieve development.

Malawi has long been the poorest country in Central Africa. As recently as 1970, some 300,000 Malawian workers found it necessary to work outside their country, usually in South Africa and Rhodesia. President-for-life Banda does not accept this economic situation as a permanent fact. And his emphases on agriculture and related industries have begun to pay dividends. However little, there is today more steady employment for Malawians at home than in the past. Some of the industrial and agricultural development that makes this possible has been financed by South African grants. This is because South Africa wants to cultivate "friends" in Africa. In the relationship between Malawi and South Africa, it is unclear just who is "cultivating" whom.

Money reserves have also increased under Banda's guidance. The trade deficit—excess of imports over exports—has been reduced. Imports have mostly been heavy equipment, which is considered an investment in creating future production for export. Neighboring Zambia has provided a market for agricultural products.

Critics have not been taken lightly by Life President Banda. Inside the country he has eliminated political opposition. His is a distinctly undemocratic style. Yet he appears to be genuinely popular in Malawi. His policy of "contact and dialogue" has gained support among many. Ivory Coast has been friendly. So have other former French colonies. In terms of his own standards, Banda is successful. Large amounts of financial aid from South Africa have been helpful. And Malawi is not without support elsewhere.

Zambia

Zambia and its leader Kenneth David Kaunda have suffered a series of setbacks since independence. Kaunda has been one of Banda's harshest critics. Today he is happy to buy food produced in Malawi. On a small scale, Zambia's problems are typical of those which have affected African states since independence.

Tribalism has been a continuing problem, built in from the start. Additionally, vigorous religious movements have complicated the old ethnic rivalries. The Lumpa Church of Alice Lenshina has openly defied the Zambian government's authority. She commands a substantial following and takes an active role in politics. Such political factionalism has been exasperating for Kaunda. He offered to resign in 1968 if such a move would provide national unity. He stayed.

Kaunda has allied Zambia ideologically with Nyerere in Tanzania and Sékou Touré in Guinea. He has tried to underpin Zambian nationalism with his theory of Humanism. But the shoes haven't quite fit. His descriptions of the good society to be created seem vague and unsystematic. They have failed to stimulate a strong sense of national purpose.

Zambia's civil service has been dispirited, inefficient, and sometimes corrupt. Public disorder has become commonplace. In the mines and elsewhere, Africanization has been slapdash. Appointments were made to gain political favor. Job training was haphazard. Management has faltered and production has dropped.

Inflation has risen steadily through the 1970s. The pressure has been great on Zambian consumers whose styles are often set in the relatively wealthy copper producing area. Rural and urban income levels have continued to separate. Overall agricultural production has fallen since independence. At times food shortages have been so acute as to require purchases from Rhodesia. Having to buy maize from white-ruled Rhodesia has been a particularly bitter pill for Kaunda to swallow.

Zambia's domestic crisis compels drastic measures. Kaunda's interests have had to shrink from the global and pan-African levels to survival at home. Kaunda, like Sékou Touré in Guinea, is especially mindful of the fate that befell Nkrumah.

Rhodesia

Rhodesia is wealthy. It is wealthier than all its African neighbors. Of course, it enjoys a geographic advantage. Its soil is rich and the mineral deposits are plentiful. The role it plays in Africa is that of a neocolonialist intermediary.

Rhodesia helps to maintain its African neighbors hostage to European economic interests. But Rhodesia is also an African country. It is subject to the common African problem of a dual economy. This has been distorted by the racial divisions of the society.

The Blacks have been tied to agricultural subsistence or to menial urban labor. Whites meanwhile have enjoyed the benefits of commercialized agriculture and modern industrialization.

Rhodesia made a unilateral declaration of independence in 1965. Against British resistance, Rhodesian Whites rejected colonial status. A new sort of "independence" was won. Around the world, people wondered what the government of Ian Smith would do. Rhodesia's agriculture provided enormous production and cash flow. It had desirable minerals and worldwide financial connections. Rhodesian Whites also had a determination to succeed on their own terms.

The question remains, "How long will 250,000 Whites dominate a country of 5,000,000 Blacks?" The question and discussions have held the attention of the United Nations and the Organization of African Unity (O.A.U.) for years. The long-range answer is not in sight. For the short

term, Rhodesia's White control has been a fiasco for the O.A.U. goals. It has been a continuing impediment to regional and continental African accord. Yet Rhodesia and the White-dominated regime of Ian Smith carry on. Rhodesia's food production is an increasingly important asset in this era of world food shortages. Their chromium for plating automobile parts and other modern devices also remain desirable commodities throughout the world.

Somalia

Somalia, too, has suffered recent political crises. For more than a decade, Somalia had been preoccupied by disputes with Kenya and Ethiopia. The argument was over borders and the nationality of nomadic herding peoples. These nomads migrated seasonally from one country to another—and back. There have been clashes between military forces and civilians. They reached a peaceful détente with Kenya in 1968. Sporadic hostilities continue with Ethiopia. One result has been political internal stress.

Somalia experienced election scandals in March 1969. Then President Abdirashid Ali Shermarke was assassinated October 15, 1969. The military took over the government six days later. Somalia's people are very homogenous. Over 99 per cent of Somalis are Sunni Muslims. Somalia's leaders have been spared the search for a common national identity. But Somalia is experiencing another kind of stress. It is attempting to change a traditional political system into a modern governmental administration. Nomadic pastoralists continue to be loyal to class and communities—the national loyalty is third behind family and these. A network of institutions to tie the peasantry to the modern government is being developed. It is an uphill effort. Localism and parochialism remain problems here as well as in neighboring nations which share few other Somali characteristics.

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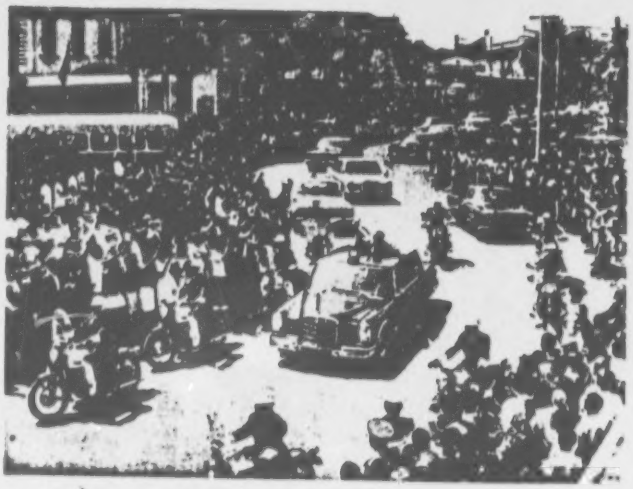
Smouldering domestic problems suddenly erupted in Kenya during July 1969. They burst forth again in Uganda during January 1971 and the months which followed.

Kenya

The triggering event in Kenya was the assassination of Tom Mboya. A Luo tribesman and renowned Kenyan and African leader, Mboya was



killed by a politically-motivated assailant. Yet his entire career had been a condemnation of tribalism and an affirmation of Kenya's national spirit. Mboya symbolized a new order of African affairs. But on his death the Luo and then the Kikuyu peoples went on emotional rampages. These disorders suggested that ethnic identification continues to be deeply felt. And in times of stress, it may still be paramount over national loyalty.

Much of the emotional intensity stemmed from economic and not political problems. Kenya's Kikuyu, for example, continue to dominate the economic sphere, just as before independence. They outstrip the other ethnic groupings in their aggressiveness and adaptability. Whether he wanted it or not, Mboya was perceived by Luo peasants as *their* representative. They were proud of him and trusted him to see that they always got fair treatment. They felt let down and frustrated when he was assassinated. Men die easily, ethnic identification dies hard.

There are many other reasons, however, why Kenya's political activity tends often to be tribally oriented. One stands out prominently. The Emergency Act imposed during Kenya's Mau Mau confrontation prohibited national organization. During this time the wealthy traditional elite had an advantage over younger leaders without strong ethnic ties. Bossism, personalities, and regionalism grew out of the old Kenyan power bases. The modern political structure is still trying to free itself from those early influences. Thus Mau Mau marked Kenya politics as deeply as the psychological scars it left on both races.

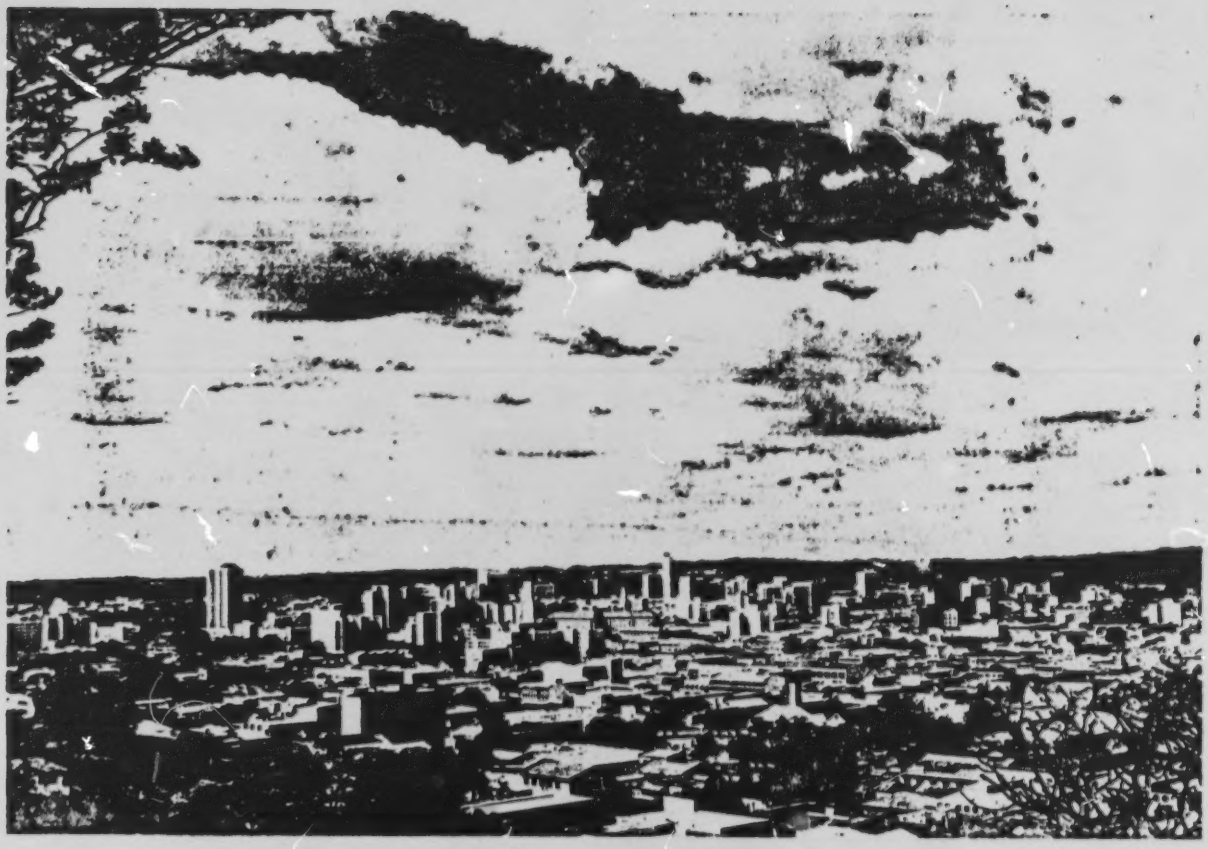
After Mboya's assassination, order was restored by President Jomo Kenyatta. The technique was a show of authority and emphasis on his image as the father of the Kenyan nation. The December 1969 elections were held on schedule. A sort of peace prevailed though opposition leader Oginga Odinga was detained by the government. The government realized that Odinga could be viewed as a martyr. Still, outmaneuvering him bought Kenyatta more time. Odinga's party was declared illegal on the eve of the elections. Nevertheless, opposition party candidates were permitted to compete for votes. Election results show that the younger, more educated, and more moderate politicians won many important positions. This trend has continued.

There is another problem that threatens Kenya's stability and development. It is becoming one of the biggest problems in every country in Africa. Joblessness is severe in Kenya. And wealth is unevenly distributed. Extremes of wealth and poverty assault the observer. The problems of ethnic rivalry almost disappear by contrast. And the problem will certainly get worse before it gets better. Most of the population in Kenya, as elsewhere on the continent, is very young. The future promises to be an even greater challenge to the nation and its leaders than was the past.

Uganda

Across Kenya's western border in Uganda, Milton Obote was Prime Minister from 1967 to January 25, 1971. He ruled in an atmosphere charged by political factionalism. In-fighting was the mode.

At a time when ethnic sensitivities were high, Obote was overthrown. The economically dominant Baganda people were embittered over the death of their King, Mutesa II, who had been in exile. Consumer prices had risen sharply. Then the export price of coffee, the major money crop, dropped dramatically. Disorder spread across the nation



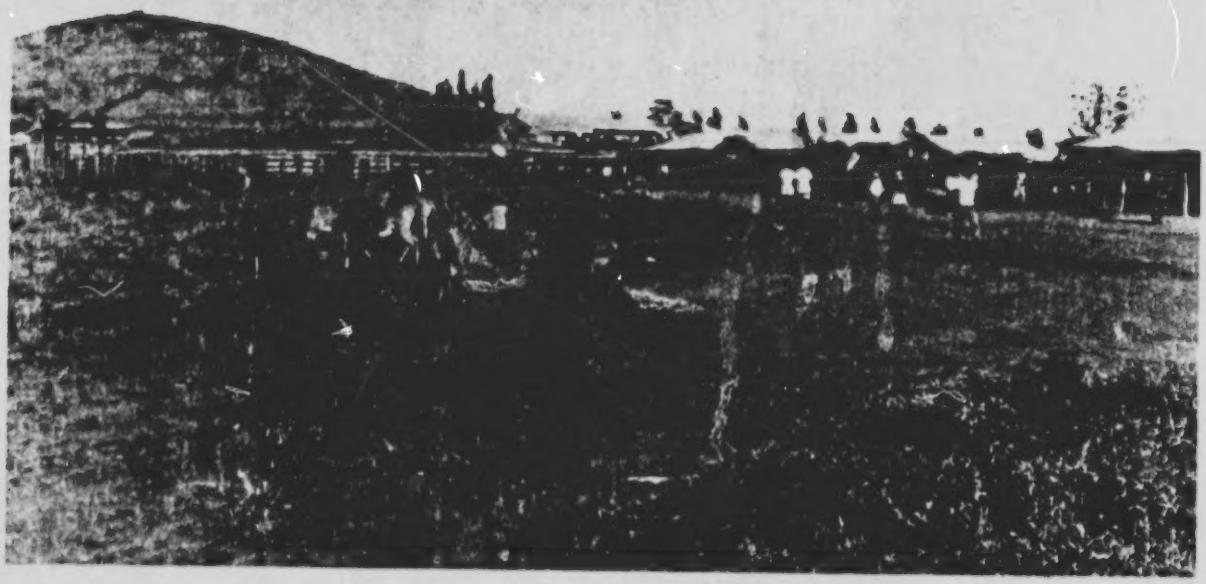
and violent crimes were occurring frequently. Obote was caught in the middle. Many thought he had drifted too far to "the left." Most of all, Ugandans demanded change. The country appeared to be on the verge of anarchy.

To "restore order," prevent "civil war," and "end government corruption" a military coup took charge. General Idi Amin, a professional soldier, became Chief of State. He exhorted Ugandans to make tribalism a thing of the past. All government ministers were inducted into the army to indoctrinate them into military ways of thinking and efficiency. No few people died, many were imprisoned, or were driven out of Uganda. The ordering of Asians to leave the country was one of the better-known events. There have been many.

Amin faces the same challenges as other African leaders. The reality is simple. If African states are to exist as nations, they must build a national consensus. People must work together toward common goals at least enough to preserve the nation.

Nationalism

Africa inherited an embryonic national system. It is a European model brought in during the colonial period. Efforts to achieve national unity in Africa differ, however, from the European experience. In the latter it was a gradual evolutionary process. In the former it was by design, the pace forced by political necessity. In Europe nationalism looked inward. Strong regional and continental cooperative movements have been prominent in the African struggle. There are other important differences. The size and scope of Africa and Europe differ tremendously. Europe is very small in contrast to Africa. European nations seem smaller still when compared to the size of African nations.



Both modern African nations and modern African peoples are young. More than half the continent's 352 million population is under 25 years of age. In the colonial period African and European traditions and experiences were mixed. Today the result is something which has never before existed. Africa is unique.

99

GREAT EXPECTATIONS/UNCERTAIN REWARDS

The year 1958 seemed to herald a new era in Africa. Leaders of all the independent African states met to discuss the future. The first All-African Peoples' Conference was also convened. Both meetings were held in Ghana at the invitation of Kwame Nkrumah.

The year was a high point for dreams of future well-being. Africans hoped their achievement of political liberty would enable them to enjoy a life of increasing prosperity. Never since has such rhetoric promoted such extraordinary expectations. All their hopes were written and spoken in the conference resolutions.

Africans sought fulfillment of the expectations built up during the decolonization period. Their success depended upon rapid industrialization and agricultural development. But the Africans lacked investment capital and many countries had no exportable natural resources. The rate of population growth on the African continent cancelled the small production increases in food crops. The rate of growth necessary to achieve prosperity

seemed an almost impossible achievement. In 1958 no one wanted to appear to be pessimistic. Hope prevailed. Some African countries were indeed fortunate. They could turn to exploitation of oil or minerals to finance national development. While farming techniques were being improved, for example, some countries could finance the development with revenues from mineral sales. One form of production could assist in the development of other kinds of production.

In Congo-Kinshasa, mining exports in 1967 still provided about four-fifths of export revenues. The economy was also experiencing healthy growth in other sectors. When independence was achieved, Zambian development could benefit from copper exports. Yet few other African nations had such readily exploitable and profitable resources. Many depended on exports of one or two agricultural products. One bad harvest could be ruinous. Sometimes the price for Ghana's cocoa or Senegal's peanuts was so low the farmers made no profit. Everyone suffered. Fluctuations in world market prices could and did have disastrous effects on struggling national economies in Africa.

Giving Up the Illusions

Some disappointment and frustration was inevitable. If the new African governments wanted to modernize rapidly, they remained dependent on industrialized countries. Skills, money, and machines had to be imported, usually from former colonial powers. Promises of future prosperity could satisfy hopeful people only for a limited time. Sooner or later, real benefits were demanded.

Some aspects of modernization were easily and quickly achieved. Transistor radios and batteries could be imported inexpensively. Schools were expanded and improved. There was an international effort to offer assistance in such efforts. American Peace Corps Volunteers and the British Volunteer Service Organization offer two examples.

New crops were introduced. They were grown on demonstration plots. Israelis, Nationalist Chinese, and others sent agriculture advisors. Ironically, such improvements often resulted in still greater expectations. Some Africans became impatient with the pace of change. What they heard on radios and learned in schools encouraged Africans to want a more satisfying material life immediately. Most African leaders tried to satisfy these desires quickly, if not realistically. Sékou Touré in Guinea suggested proceeding without help from the former colonial overlords. Guinea's slow progress and the people's impatience finally led him to a "returning to friendship" with France in 1968. This *rapprochement* with a former colonial master symbolized the hope and progress many thought was being made.

If some disillusionment was inevitable, Africans were not the only ones to blame. The great colonial powers soon decided their strategic interests were not at issue in Africa. Much of the economic backing they promised the Africans never developed. Hopeful Africans applied for loans which failed to materialize. Vast projects were often planned, then not built, or begun but not completed.

The world press did its share in promoting unrealistic expectations of the new African nationalism. Publicity was given to the flamboyant personalities such as Nkrumah. He was the first of many African leaders partly manufactured by the press. When old nationalist leaders were displaced by their own people, their successors were sometimes discredited by a press biased in favor of the old nationalist heroes.

Finally, "foreign" fascination with Africa simply waned. So too did much of the international attention which might have led to investment in the new African states.

The Decade of the 1960s

By the mid-1960s, independent African nations were directly confronting discouraging economic situations. Economic "policy" scarcely existed, only remnants of the colonial period. "Foreign" organizations continued to dominate banking, distribution, and mining in most of the new nations. "Foreign" businessmen and former colonial officials continued to occupy top positions in management, the professions, and technology. All too few Africans had been trained to replace them. And employment practices inhibited African advance.

Most of the countries depended on imported fuels to generate electricity and operate machinery. Nigeria was an exception. The country was practically self-sufficient in fuel. Even there, however, "foreigners" were prominent in the

export of crude oil and the import of refined petroleum products.

Machinery and most consumer durables were imported from industrialized nations. "Foreign" capital was imported and interest was paid in order to stimulate the economies. Former colonial nations loaned money to their former colonies. For many years Guinea was the only major exception. The President, Sékou Touré, said "no" to offers of loans from France. His counterpart in the Ivory Coast, President Felix Houphouët-Boigny, accepted all the assistance he could get. Both men had the same objective—economic self-sufficiency. They sought it by different paths.

Throughout the early 1960s, former colonial powers bought about 35 per cent of their ex-colonies' exports. They also provided about 40 per cent of their imports. These relationships were documented in a United Nations Foreign Trade report in 1966. The study did not recommend a way to change the balance in Africa's favor.

At issue was who controlled Africa's wealth, existing or potential. Heavy reliance on a few agricultural products limited the possibilities for growth. An economy dependent on one crop, for example, could not afford to risk crop diversification. Market agreements created in colonial times bound the new national economies to world market conditions. Cocoa in Ghana, peanuts in Senegal, coffee and tea in Kenya, cotton and coffee in Uganda, these were the "backbones" of the national economies. Their continued production was the price of survival.

Agricultural products also had to compete with technological innovations. Natural rubber, an important product in Liberia, was challenged on world markets by synthetics. Tanzanian sisal lost value because synthetic replacement fibers were developed. To compete, sisal prices had to be lowered. The result was a declining income for a nation with a rapidly growing population.

Sometimes Africans secured contracts providing "favorite nation" treatment by a European power. More often market price variations created serious problems over which Africans had no control. Not all these problems were economic. As prices fluctuated, so did the political situations. The hoped for security and stability had not yet been found.

Foreign Enclaves

"Foreigners" formed enclaves in almost every new African nation. Plantations, timber concessions, oil concessions, mining companies and financial institutions were a part of the new "independent" scene. The enclaves consisted largely of extractive industries like mining. Their effects on the general economic situation were not often beneficial. "Growth" in the industry could occur without affecting permanent "development." Although technological innovations in the mining of copper, for example, increased production and revenues, other sectors of the economy were not stimulated.

The Price of Development

The cost of "development" was high in many ways. Developing African states invited European specialists to advise and direct projects. These technical and other specialists had expensive life styles. They demanded housing for their families such as they had enjoyed in Europe or America. New states provided them with high wages, housing, vacation allowances, transportation, and fringe benefits. Africans were willing to pay, for they wished to acquire the specialist's skills. More often than not, the Africans were disappointed. Low-budget nations were stuck with high-price help.

"Foreign aid" was an equally complex and frequently misunderstood relationship. What appeared to be low interest loans tended to carry expensive price tags in the small print. Most common was a requirement to purchase equipment from the creditor nation. Sometimes the contracts also included hiring mechanics and purchasing spare parts from the same nation for years to come. "Foreign aid" could be used by industrialized nations to expand their own economies by providing credit to developing African and other newly independent nations.

Toward Economic Independence

Continued dependence on the West has been the major economic problem in independent African states. Perhaps the second has been that of the dual domestic economy. The problem already existed when the colonial governments withdrew. There was a growing disparity between city and country. A modern urban-based economic sector catered to a small westernized elite. The subsistence economy

of the agrarian hinterland was largely undisturbed. Most African leaders chose temporarily to deepen the schism by emphasizing further development of the modern sector. Houphouët-Boigny of Ivory Coast and Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya were chief examples. They aimed to expand the modern sector to include eventually the majority of the population. In Zambia where Kenneth Kaunda has chosen a modified socialist approach to economic development, the duality is still striking. Malawi and Tanzania, for different reasons, have emphasized development in traditional economic sectors.

Economic growth in developing countries is like the chicken and the egg. Few people agree where to start. Industrial growth depends on consumer demand from the mostly rural population. This growth would enable the internal market to absorb the products of domestic industry. But expanded consumer capacity has had to await improvements in the still virtually stagnant agricultural economy. There is another crucial facet to the problem. Relatively high wages and economic opportunity have been located in the urban areas. Africans have sought them in cities across the continent. There are too many applicants for too few jobs. Rapid urbanization may have created among the unemployed what will become the most explosive political situation African governments have yet encountered.

In the 1970s most African states have reoriented development priorities in favor of the agricultural sector. This has been accompanied by the establishment of related processing, supply, and service industries. Julius Nyerere in Tanzania and his ideological allies, Kaunda and Sékou Touré, have made notable progress. They call their policies "African socialism." Kenya, too, has begun directing attention away from export production. The Kenyans have designed an agricultural resettlement scheme in an attempt to provide economic opportunities in rural areas. President Hastings Banda in Malawi has also attempted to inject vitality into the agrarian economy. Dr. Banda's efforts lack the philosophical justification provided by theories of African socialism. But they have been practical and effective. Malawi has angered would-be supporters like Nyerere and Kaunda by pursuing a policy of political and economic accommodation to the white-ruled south.

These shifts in domestic economic policy have frequently had wide implications. Many governments decreed compulsory Africanization of certain levels of employment or areas of trade. Government restrictions were placed on the activities of resident aliens, such as the Lebanese in West Africa or Asians in East and Central Africa. Kenya as early as 1967 and Ghana in 1968 barred aliens from retail trade. In the 70s Zambia and Malawi increased pressure on Asian traders there. In Ivory Coast there has been renewed agitation against non-Ivoirien workers, mainly residents of Upper Volta and Dahomey.

Education and Employment

In every case the objective was the same. Agriculture was emphasized to increase material and nutritional standards and to increase employment. But certain side effects were not fully considered. More and more Africans, many with some formal Western-style education, have migrated to towns. There are not enough jobs. The question of education again becomes critical. When the rural environment begins to offer opportunities and require skills, the educated can be employed there and begin to form a bridge between rural and urban, agricultural and industrial. Harmonizing these economies is an important part of nation building. And developing nations is what Africans are about.

Timber sawing.

RWANDA: A THOUSAND HILLS

"Rwanda?"

"It is the Switzerland of Africa."

"It is about the size of Vermont."

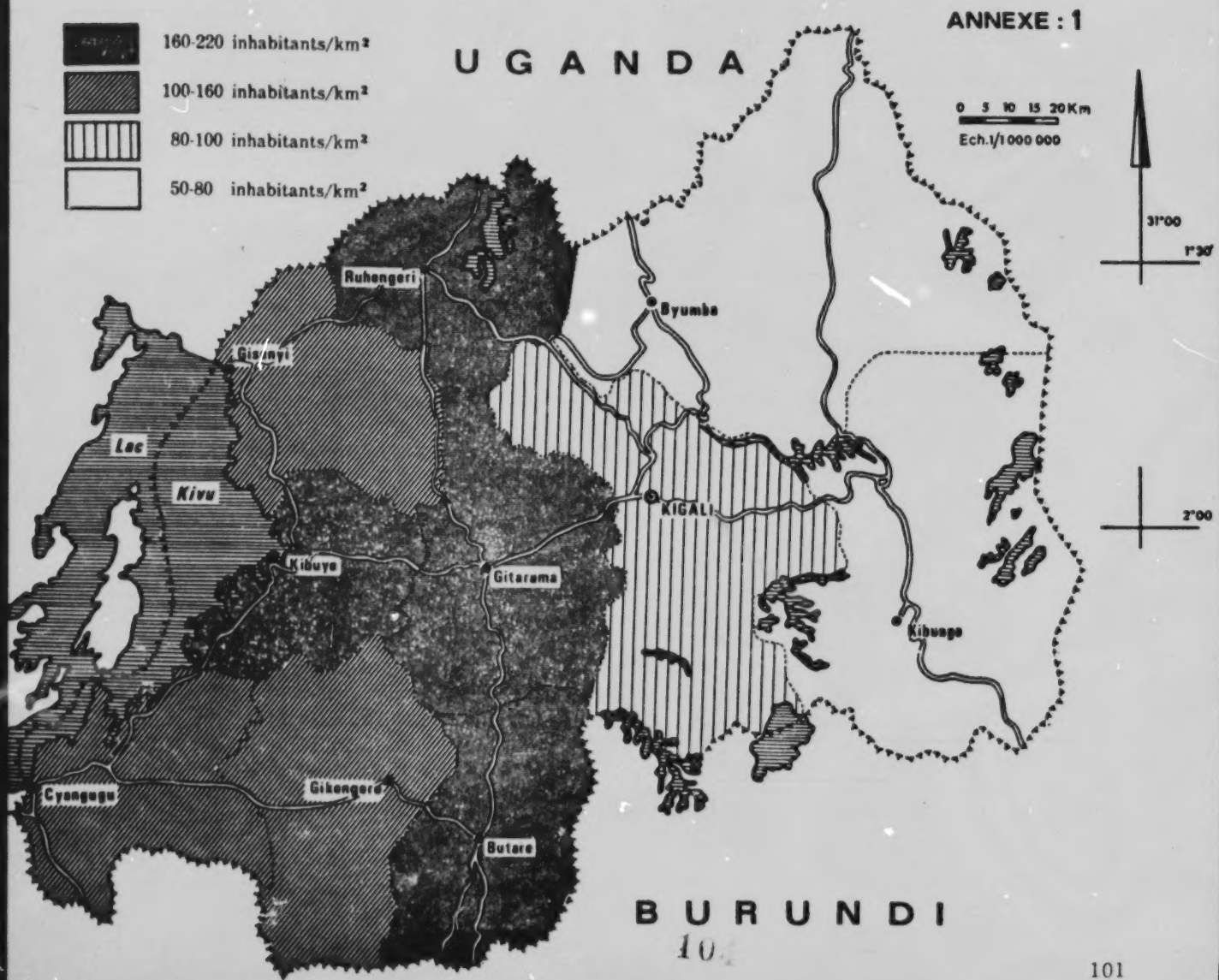
"It is the land of the thousand hills."

There is only one Rwanda. Despite the frequent comparisons, it is unique, in Central Africa or the world.

Geographically it is an area of grassy uplands, thousands of hills and valleys. There are volcanoes in the northwest. Rwanda is a land of lakes. The rivers flowing out of this African nation eventually become the Zaïre and Nile Rivers. From Rwanda, water flows west to the Atlantic and north to the Mediterranean. Yet this small nation of more than four million Rwandans receives little attention in books and films and in the press.

These gentle green hills extending farther than one can see are the historic home of three African ethnic groups. The Hutu are a short, sturdy farming people. They make up almost 90 per cent of the Rwandan population. Hutu young people, as shown before, tend herds of cattle. These Ndanga cattle are as unique as the Rwandan hills which they graze.

DEMOGRAPHIC DENSITY



Hutu youngsters keeping watch over herds of Ndanga cattle.

The Tutsi make up about 9 per cent of Rwanda's population. These tall, slender people also herd cattle. During or before the 1600s, the Tutsi are thought to have migrated from the southern part of what is now Ethiopia. The Tutsi lifestyle and physique are distinctive.

Twa pygmies are the third ethnic group among Rwandans. Of the three indigenous peoples, the Twa settlement of Rwanda has been the longest. These people now find themselves a minority in the land where they arrived "first." Culturally and physically the Twa are as distinct from the Hutu as from the Tutsi.

Tutsi (Watutsi) dancers performing in Kigali during a public ceremony.

Nor are the Hutu, the Tutsi and the Twa the only people in Rwanda. Called locally *Bahutu, Batutsi,* and *Batwa*, they share Rwanda with about 3,000 Asians, 2,300 Europeans, and 130 North Americans. The Asians are mostly from India. Belgians are a majority of the Europeans. And most of those from North America are missionary families from the United States.

Between 1890 and 1960, German East Africa included Rwanda and also what is now neighboring Burundi and Tanganyika. The German colonial effort did not last long. Already in control of Zaïre, the Belgians invaded Rwanda in 1916. From then until 1962 when they became independent, Rwanda and Burundi were administered by Belgium.

Intermarriage has not been common between Rwandan ethnic groups. Family traditions remain strong. Families tend to be large. About 65 per cent of Rwandans are Roman Catholic. The Papal position condemning most forms of birth control is taken seriously. Religious beliefs and cultural traditions have combined to produce in Rwanda one of the highest population densities in Africa. It averages some 400 people per square mile.

Both cooperation and competition have kept Rwandan peoples in fairly close contact. The Tutsi, for example, have provided protection for the Hutu. In return, Hutu have served the Tutsi much as Medieval European serfs served their lords. The Twa have tended to lead a more isolated life in small villages. They too have occasionally been included in the semifeudal system established by the Tutsi conquerors.

Mountain areas can deceive the unwary. What looks close can be far away. And what appears to be rich land may provide a poor living. To German adventurers and the administrators who followed, the Rwandan hills seemed a promising land. "Milk and honey" will flow, they thought. A large European-German population can be "settled" here.

Their expectations were short-lived. There is little good agricultural land to be developed. Dry scrublands make up a large portion of the territory. Rainfall is unevenly distributed over the land and through the year. The best lands already had large populations when the Germans arrived. Not only were the people densely settled before German colonialism, but also overgrazing was common.

This contributed to the rapid erosion of the soils and a general and continuing decline in their productivity.

Poverty is no trivial matter in Rwanda. Thousands have died in the famines which periodically visit these hills. There is also feuding, particularly during periods of food scarcity. Intertribal warfare exists. Massacres have not been uncommon.

Scenes of the tranquil rural life, such as in the picture on this page, contrast dramatically with the realities of life in Rwanda.

1. Average lifespan among Rwandans is 35-40 years.
2. Around 12 per cent of Rwandan babies die before the age of one.
3. Almost 25 per cent of young Rwandans die by age fifteen.
4. The Rwandan population doubles each twenty-one years.
5. Over 51 per cent of Rwandans are young.
6. Over 43 per cent of Rwandans are adults.
7. About 5 per cent of Rwandans are old.
8. The major causes of death among young Rwandans are malnutrition, respiratory infections, digestive tract diseases, malaria, and tuberculosis.
9. Almost 74 per cent of the Rwandan population live on 60 per cent of the land which receives the highest rainfall.
10. Neither cities, towns, nor villages are common in Rwanda. According to the Rwandan government, less than one per cent of the people lived in urban areas in 1970.
11. Most Rwandans farm or herd cattle. They live at a subsistence level. Yet every year there are more people making more demands on the same amount of land.
12. Population increase is not perceived by Rwandans as a basic problem. Usually ethnicity is perceived as the number one problem.

Rwandan peasants tilling their fields.

13. Rwandan President Gregoire Kayibanda has opposed efforts to encourage family planning or to curb population growth.

During 1972, when this photograph was taken, President Kayibanda spoke of the problems of underdevelopment among Third World nations.

From left to right: President Gregoire Kayibanda of Rwanda, President Sese Seko Mobutu of Zaire, and President Michel Micombero of Burundi.

> The solution of this problem does not reside at all in family planning but in the mobilization of the material and human resources in the struggle against underdevelopment.

Those who heard this speech, May 1, 1972 were attending a workers' rally in Kigali, Rwanda's capital. The explanation they heard dealt with reasons for underdevelopment in the Third World and in Rwanda. Kayibanda identified three problem areas. (1) He blamed Belgium for imposing a single-crop agricultural system on Rwanda. (2) He cited the deterioration of trading terms with large and rich nations. (3) He abhorred the tendencies of rich nations to give aid with one hand and take it away with the other.

An aerial view of Kigali, Rwanda's growing capital city.

LIBERIA
Economic and Human Progress

Liberia, sovereign since 1847, was spared the struggle for political independence. It was not spared the quest for national unity. For almost a century the country's Black-American settler population separated itself culturally. They were outnumbered four to one by Africans indigenous to the area. The division between the two dominated all social and political relationships. As an independent state, Liberia was ruled politically by the small Americo-Liberian elite. Economically it was heavily influenced by United States-based business firms. Liberia was legally a state; it was not yet a nation.

President W.V.S. Tubman took office in 1944. He introduced limited educational and political reforms and the goal of national integration was made official policy. Progress toward that goal was helped during the postwar period by Liberia's increased prosperity. This was especially true in the 1950s. Expansion of economic opportunities allowed for increased social mobility between the two groups. In addition, Americo-Liberians were exposed to Pan-African propaganda during this decade. They began intellectually and culturally to identify with all Africans as brothers in the anti-imperial campaign. Pan-African sentiment led to more sympathetic relationships with indigenous Liberians. There was a greater willingness to grant them opportunities for advancement. At the same time, Liberians tried to lessen dependence upon Firestone and the United States government.

A decade later Liberians were tested. A Liberian diplomat, Henry Fahnbulleh, was charged with treason. Mr. Fahnbullah was, at the time, Liberia's Ambassador to Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda. He is a lawyer with a long and distinguished career and a descendent of warrior chiefs of the Vai, one of Liberia's principal indigenous peoples. Fahnbulleh is among the very few non-Americo-Liberians to have reached high public office.

The charge of inciting rebellion was preposterous. The Prosecution's conduct was scandalous and the Judiciary was clearly buckling under political pressure. During the trial, out crept all the unpleasantness of Liberia's age-old conflicts. Fahnbulleh's conviction brought the country to the edge of civil disorder. Street demonstrations became occasions for vocal expressions of hostility between Americo-Liberians and other Liberian Africans.

Yet Liberia's government was courageous. It conducted the trial openly. Members of the local and international press were admitted to the proceedings. In many one-party states, such a trial would have been conducted behind closed doors. The Liberians did not even censor press reports. It is true that Fahnbulleh was subjected to degrading attack. He was incarcerated unjustly. Only after more than two years of international effort—through the World Court and other organizations—was he freed. But in Liberia the nation gave vent to its tensions and did not break apart.

President Tubman launched his Unification Policy back in 1944. It contrasted favorably with previous policies but it has not been a complete success. The cleavage between the "Descendants of the Pioneers" and the "Sons of the Soil," as Liberians characterize themselves, is still great. Political power rests with the Americo-Liberian minority. Despite President Tubman's earnest efforts, this minority has been very, very slow in changing its attitudes. It is still unwilling to share fairly with the great majority of Africans who are also Liberians.

But this is only part of the explanation. Liberia, like other countries—underdeveloped and developed—is in the throes of change. It is change that political leaders do not understand and therefore fear. It is change that derives mainly from the extraordinary growth of education. Ideas, many of them revolutionary, are widely diffused. These ideas are exciting the imagination of youth everywhere. They question old beliefs. They challenge institutions which make those in power feel secure.

In every society there are a few men who try to understand change. They analyze historic events and try to find their meaning. They try to guide their own societies so that change is productive, not destructive. They seek accommodation and adaptation. Such men often inspire fear or jealousy

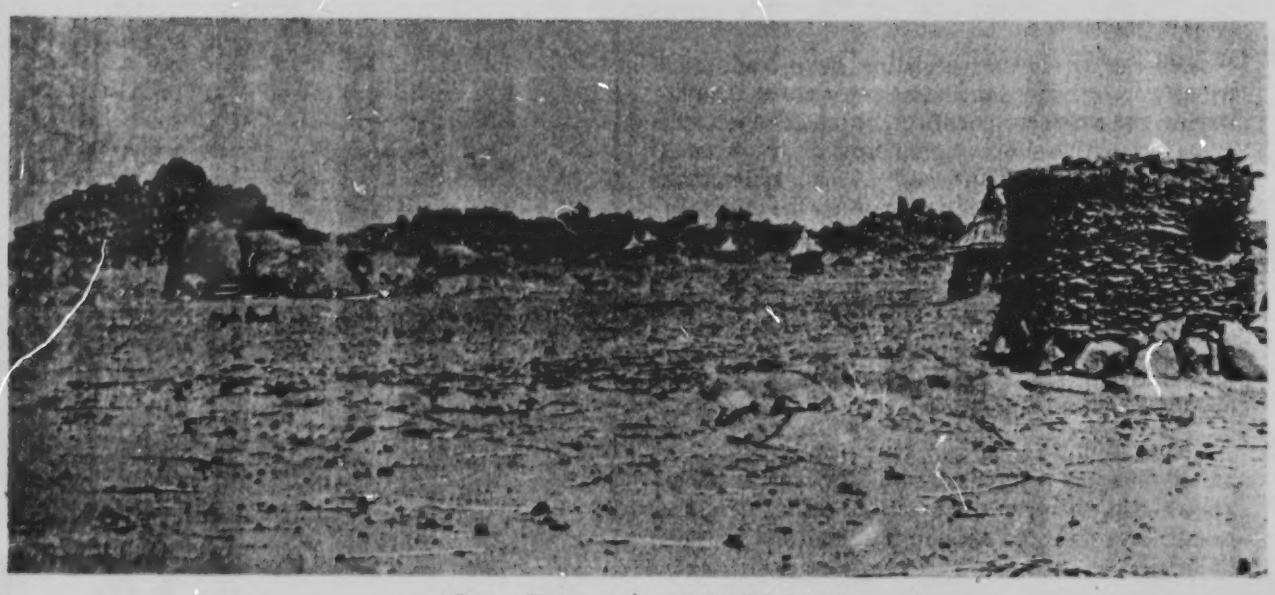
Ambassador Fahnbulleh testifying before the court.

in others who, not understanding the books they read nor the things they talk about, despise them. Henry Fahnbulleh is one of these men.

Indigenous Liberians remained loyal to the government. But they will not forget the fate of one of the few of their number who succeeded in achieving high public office. Equally important, much of the youth was disillusioned by the trial. They were embittered by the corruption and hypocrisy they witnessed. Will they remain loyal to leaders of a society in which there is no room for dissent? Will they support a government which condemns a man, at least in part, for the books he reads?

Fahnbulleh's trial is over. Liberia's trial goes on.

DESERT TRAGEDY
EXPANDING DESERT



Gorom-Gorom region of the Sahel in Upper Volta.

In the Sahelian-Sudanic zones of Africa, a terrible drama is being performed. The actors are millions of people and tens of millions of animals. These captive participants enact their roles against a desert background. The sandy wastes and scrubland seem endless.

This tragedy illustrates human dependence on the basic natural element of water. Fearful consequences result when natural calamity or human mishandling of the environment reduces access to its life-sustaining powers.

The Sahelian-Sudanic area is a vast, semi-arid bioclimatic region. It extends southward from the Sahara Desert roughly to 14° north of the equator. Eastward this desert area extends from the Atlantic Ocean to the Red Sea. Comprising nearly two million square miles of land, it contained a population of over 60 million people in 1972. Included are major portions of Senegal, Mauritania, Mali, Niger, Chad, and parts of Upper Volta, Dahomey, Nigeria, Cameroun, the Central African Republic, Sudan, and Ethiopia.

The Sahelian zone or "Sahel," lies immediately south of the Sahara. Here the rainfall averages less than 25 inches per year. The Sahel is distinct from the Sudanic zone, which is farther south. There the annual rainfall varies between 25 and 60 inches a year. Vegetation ranges from tall grass and scattered trees to steppe and brush savannah. The Sahel contains six former French colonies—Senegal, Mauritania, Mali, Niger, the Upper Volta, and Chad. These nations, independent since 1960, have been most seriously affected by the drought. Together they have a population of about 25 million.

Once the Sahel was a very important region in Africa. It lay between the Arab and Berber areas of North Africa and the Negro regions of the Sahara. Across this vast hinterland of sand and savannah flowed currents of two major civilizations. Peoples of Arab, Berber, and Negro descent mingled in the Sahel.

The high point of development in the Sahel came between the eleventh and seventeenth centuries. Then its major towns—Gao, Djenne, Timbuktu, and others—rose in importance. Not only were they entrepots for trading caravans winding across the Sahara. But they were also centers of large, powerful and well-developed empires. When early medieval Europe was virtually asleep, the University of Timbuktu attracted scholars throughout the Arabic-speaking world. There was a high degree of

civil administration, economic wealth, and cultural attainment. This period under a militant Islam was a golden age. Religion, education, law, and architecture flourished.

Such factors as the spreading slave trade and tribal wars led the Sahel into a period of decline during the eighteenth century. Much of West and Equatorial Africa were conquered by the French and the British at the end of the nineteenth century. In the early twentieth century the people of the Sahel were subjects of European colonial empires. Their former nations were now colonies.

Following the colonial period, independence was again achieved. This time the Sahel was divided into nations. These countries of the Sahel are mostly poor and underdeveloped.

Chad, Mali, Niger, and the Upper Volta are among the poorest nations in the world. Their known natural resources are few. Often these are remote and costly to exploit. The vast majority of their peoples are either nomads or subsistence farmers. They barely manage to eke out an existence from this harsh and unyielding environment. Of every four children born, one dies before reaching the age of five. The average life span is 40 years. The literacy rate is just over 10 per cent.

Since 1968 the Sahel's annual rainfall decreased each year. Not until 1972, however, did the lack of rain lead to widespread famine.

The first clues appeared in September 1972. Government authorities reported the southward movement of large numbers of nomads. They had normally inhabited the northern areas of their countries. Nomads with herds of cattle, sheep, goats, camels, and other livestock had long migrated during the latter part of the year. Formerly they had waited until the rainy season ended and crops had been harvested. Now the migrations were starting earlier than usual. And they were much more intense.

Large numbers of nomads arriving unexpectedly produced anxiety in the governments of the six Sahelian countries. Their concern was heightened by the nomads' accounts of widespread suffering in the northern regions. Northern rangelands received no rain. Thus there was no grass for grazing livestock herds. Rivers and wells had run dry. Pasturelands gave way to desert. People and animals were dying from thirst and hunger.

The states of the Sahel.

United Nations officials reported an emergency resulting from poor harvests throughout the Sahel. Typical were widespread crop failures, dried-up water sources, declines in underground water levels and suffering among people and livestock. The scale far exceeded earlier estimates of the situation.

Cries of alarm were sounded in Africa and in the world press. The six Sahelian nations were the hardest hit. But Dahomey, Nigeria, Cameroun, the Central African Republic, the Sudan and Ethiopia also felt the drought effects.

Foreign journalists visited the scene. They confirmed the magnitude of the disaster. Already the drought had destroyed 50 per cent of the livestock in Mauritania and 40 per cent in Mali. Throughout the Sahel the carcasses of dead animals testified to the absence of water and fodder.

Thousands of nomads having lost their herds were fleeing to already overcrowded towns and cities in the Sahel. They searched for food and

Livestock perished by the millions throughout the Sahel for lack of sufficient water and pastureland.

The uncontrolled cutting of wood for fuel purposes has been one of the major causes of erosion and desertification in the Sahel.

water. They sought a new livelihood. By their sheer number these refugees created serious problems. Local authorities were unprepared to cope. Those more fortunate who still possessed herd animals—fled southward by the thousands. Water and pastureland were sought. To those who became hosts, the migration amounted to an invasion. New crises were provoked. Disputes arose between farming peoples and the newly arrived nomads. Land and water rights were questions. Tribal and ethnic conflict rose sharply.

Even with large quantities of emergency food, medical supplies, and animal fodder, the problems of transporting supplies remained.

Time was of crucial importance. Reserve supplies of food, grain, and planting seed for the next season had been exhausted. And within a few weeks, by mid-June—the annual rainy season was expected. Though rainfall would be too little to end the drought, it could close the few roads leading into the Sahel's interior.

The catastrophe which grips the Sahel is not due to any single cause. Rather, it results from three major factors: (1) *climatological changes*; (2) *disruptions in the ecological system* caused by centuries of improper land use and increasing populations; and (3) the *failure to develop adequate systems for water control and conservation.*

A common sight in the Sahel: the death of cattle. Dori region, the Upper Volta.

Nomads fleeing southward as the Sahara expands into the Sahel.

NATURE 'SPOILS' A WILDLIFE PARADISE

by Boyce Rensberger*

A Masai herdsman drives his cattle across the parched dust of Amboseli in search of anything green.

Perhaps the best known and most enduring single feature of East Africa is the massive, snow crested mound of Kilimanjaro, rising through the clouds to over 19,000 feet.

In the foreground of many thousands of tourists' photographs of the mountain, however, is one of the most fragile and transitory features of Africa—the splendid yellow-barked acacia woodlands of Amboseli with herds of elephant or zebra or giraffe spectacularly silhouetted against the mountain.

For some 20 years the once lush vegetation of Amboseli has been gradually dying, turning parts of Kenya's most profitable game park into a barren landscape and threatening to destroy much of what remains of one of Africa's best wildlife viewing areas. Since 1950 some 90 percent of the trees have died. Scrubby bushes have taken their place and the change in habitat may lead to a decline in the game animals for which Amboseli is famous.

Although the destruction of the habitat has long been attributed to overgrazing by the cattle of the semi-nomadic Masai tribe (legally entitled to use the reserve until it becomes a national park) and damage by elephants, recent scientific studies have largely exonerated the accused and revealed instead that a completely natural phenomenon is the basic cause of the change.

The study has also suggested that the same phenomenon, part of a natural cycle extending over many decades, has occurred in the past and that the present seeming deterioration of the habitat may eventually reverse itself and return Amboseli to its former glories decades from now.

The Amboseli phenomenon dramatically illustrates a principle of ecology that is usually less obvious: There is no such thing as a pristine state of nature. Habitats are continually changing everywhere, responding to completely natural causes from cycles of rainfall abundance and drought to geologic faulting that rents and drains a lake to population explosions that force habitat-modifying animals into new areas.

* Boyce Rensberger is an Alicia Patterson Foundation award winner with support from the L.S.B. Leakey Foundation. This article was first published under the auspices of the Alicia Patterson Foundation and the L.S.B. Leakey Foundation and is reprinted with permission.

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Much of the part of Amboseli that has had the most animals and tourists now looks like this.

It is a common enough phenomenon almost everywhere that it is likely to confound most efforts to draw boundaries between what shall be left as wilderness and what shall be "developed". Nature rarely maintains a habitat in an unchanging condition from year to year. Nature keeps her balance over very large areas, sometimes over the planet as a whole. Deficits may occur in one area but they are compensated for by surpluses elsewhere.

As long as such major ecological factors as the water cycle (global circulation of clouds and oceans and continental flow of rivers and underground water) obey no political boundaries, many things that are inside a national park will continue to depend on factors outside the park, whether those factors are man's work or nature's. The Everglades will die because farmers hundreds of miles away drain bogs for cultivation. And Amboseli will lose its remarkable variety of wildlife because, ironically, its rainfall has increased in the last few decades.

Dr. David Western of the University of Nairobi has found, after a five-year study of Amboseli, that the trees and grass are dying because of this sequence of events:

1. Rainfall in recent decades has been greater than in the decades before.

2. This has raised the underground water table, bringing subterranean water up near the roots of the trees.

3. But the water is carrying with it dissolved mineral salts, that were deposited in the ground long ago.

4. Roots immersed in water with a too-high salt content will shrivel because the laws of osmosis will cause water to flow out of the root into the soil instead of the other way around.

(Osmosis, quite simply, moves water across a membrane from a region of lower mineral content to a region of higher mineralization. The "goal" of osmosis is to achieve equilibrium between two originally unequal concentrations of minerals. Groundwater normally flows through the cell membrane into the root when the soil water is less mineralized than the contents of the cell. At Amboseli the reverse situation is true.)

5. The same thing doesn't always happen. Elsewhere there are rising water tables because Amboseli has an unusually rich concentration of minerals in its soil.

6. This is because, a few thousand years ago, Amboseli had a large shallow lake into which several rivers drained but which had no outlet. It lost

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water only by evaporation, which resulted in gradually increasing concentrations of dissolved minerals in the lake that had been brought in by streams. (Today in East Africa there are many such "soda lakes" or "alkaline lakes". Lake Nakuru, the famous flamingo sanctuary, is one.) Eventually Lake Amboseli dried up, leaving thick crusts of minerals on the ground just like the deposits in an old teakettle. Later, rains redissolved the minerals and washed them down into the depths of the soil.

Western said records from explorers of the last century, a time of heavy rainfall as now, indicate that Amboseli was then very much like what it now seems to be becoming. One old record even states that Amboseli was dominated by a kind of bush known to favor soil of high salinity. The Masai, who have long lived in the area, told Western that the woodlands did not grow up in Amboseli until the turn of the century or shortly thereafter.

"We now know," Western said, "that Amboseli is subject to periodic changes and must be regarded as an ecosystem in a continually dynamic state."

Until Western's detailed ecological analysis of Amboseli, traditional conservationists and tourists saw no reason to doubt that Amboseli's decline was the result purely of trampling and overgrazing by the vast herds of cattle kept by the Masai, the tall, elegant tribesmen of East Africa who have long disdained Western ways and, for that matter, the ways of every other African tribe.

The huge dust clouds swirling up from a herd of cattle being driven to water were proof positive to Europeans that the Masai were responsible for the destruction they saw. After all, they noted, it couldn't be drought because the rains in recent years had been better than ever. The trees were said to be going as the result of elephant damage as well and, indeed, there was some elephant damage.

Conservation organizations mounted strong campaigns to evict the Masai from their traditional lands.

To learn whether overgrazing was really at fault, Western began a study of Masai methods of cattle keeping.

His attempts to learn how the Masai decide where to graze their cattle or when to move on to another area were initially futile. Questions like, "why do you move your cattle from this place to that?" brought answers like, "Because it's time to move them." Only when he could persuade the Masai that a white man actually wanted to know the technical aspects of raising Masai cattle, did they begin to open up.

Western found that the Masai were extraordinarily knowledgeable about the growth cycles of the various plants in their region and that they moved their cattle from one grazing area to another so as to minimize damage to the habitat. Scouts are sent out to look for areas where isolated showers have produced a brief greening. If the greenest grass is too far from drinking water to drive the cattle back and forth, the Masai donkeys are brought into action. Long trains of donkeys with water containers on their backs are led by the women back and forth between the water hole and the pasture.

Two lions rest in the lush, salt-tolerant grass that has sprung up where the rising water table has fed salt to the roots of these dying Acacias.

If the available grass is too little in an area the big herds are split into smaller ones which scatter widely over the region to reduce the grazing pressure.

"The Masai really live quite harmoniously with their environment," Western said. To live any other way in an arid climate would, of course, be suicidal and the Masai have been living in their present lands for at least 200 years.

Western also suspected something other than cattle were at fault because the areas with the most marked decline in vegetation had been free of cattle for up to 20 years and the areas with the heaviest Masai settlement had the healthiest trees in the region.

Attention turned to elephants as the possible culprit. Over 80 percent of the failing trees showed signs of elephant damage. But 17 percent of the dead and dying trees showed no sign of elephant activity. Soil studies eventually revealed that these trees were rooted in earth with a high salinity. Further study found that virtually all of the most severely elephant-damaged areas also had salty soil.

Western has concluded that as increasing soil salinity killed off trees, fewer and fewer were left to withstand the elephant damage that had previously been negligible. The result was an apparent but nonexistent increase in elephant damage. Conservation officials had considered shooting some of the elephants to halt the woodland decline. That plan has now been dropped.

If the Masai cattle are not the chief culprit in Amboseli's decline, the tribe's young warriors do pose a threat to the reserve's rhinoceros population. A study made by Western and the then warden of Amboseli, Daniel M. Sindiyo, himself a Masai, has found that the rhinos are being speared so frequently that, if the practice is not curtailed, there will be no more rhinos in Amboseli by 1977.

Although rhinos are still rather common elsewhere and reintroduction could boost their numbers, the Amboseli population seems to be genetically unusual in that the rhinos have extraordinarily long horns, some measuring over four feet in length. Until recently the rhinos have been the biggest draw for tourists. The tourists, in turn, have made Amboseli one of the most profitable of game parks, producing some 200,000 dollars a year in revenue. Amboseli alone earns 75 percent of the revenue produced in its district.

Yet, virtually none of the money filters down to the Masai living in the area. That, Western believes, is why the young warriors, a class with few duties, have no compunctions about spearing rhinos for kicks. They used to prove their bravery by raiding cattle from neighbors but that has largely been stopped. Some rhinos are also killed by herdsmen defending an area for their cattle and others are lost to poachers seeking the horn.

If rhino spearing can be stopped (national park status would exclude Masai from living in the area) and if the replacement of the dying trees by salt-tolerant bush does not remove so much favorable habitat that there are not enough game animals to attract tourists, Amboseli will face a further problem—the tourists themselves. Their harassment of lions and cheetahs has driven some away and may have led to missed kills that caused some cubs to starve. And the criss-crossing of safari vehicles over the fragile alkaline grasses is actually destroying more vegetation than the Masai cattle, Western said.

At present some 100,000 people visit Amboseli each year but the number is growing so fast that by 1980 the number may reach half a million—most of them determined to see elephant, rhino, lion, cheetah and buffalo in a single day. At present it is still possible to do this. That is Amboseli's great attraction.

QUESTIONS TO BE CONSIDERED

1. What is meant by a balance of nature?
2. Why is this balance important?
3. How do the Masai interact with their environment?
4. Are all the Masai values consistent with preserving environmental harmony?
5. What is the role of tourists?
6. Why are they important?
7. Should the tourists be better educated? How?

AROUND AFRICA: B.C.

Herodotus knew of Africa. He wrote of it as "Libya" sometime before 425 B.C.

For my part I am astonished that men should ever have divided Libya, Asia, and Europe as they have, for they are exceedingly unequal. Europe extends the entire length of the other two, and for breadth will not even [as I think] bear to be compared to them. As for Libya, we know it to be washed on all sides by the sea, except where it is attached to Asia. This discovery was first made by Necos, the Egyptian king, who on desisting from the canal which he had begun between the Nile and the Arabian gulf, sent to sea a number of ships manned by Phoenicians, with orders to make for the Pillars of Hercules, and return to Egypt through them, and by the Mediterranean. The Phoenicians took their departure from Egypt by way of the Erythraean sea, and so sailed into the southern ocean. When autumn came, they went ashore, wherever they might happen to be, and having sown a tract of land with corn, waited until the grain was fit to cut. Having reaped it, they again set sail; and thus it came to pass that two whole years went by, and it was not till the third year that they doubled the Pillars of Hercules, and made good their voyage home. On their return, they declared—I for my part do not believe them, but perhaps others may—that in sailing round Libya they had the sun upon their right hand. In this way was the extent of Libya first discovered.*

Next to these Phoenicians the Carthaginians, according to their own accounts, made the voyage. For Sataspes, son of Teaspes, the Achaemenian, did not circumnavigate Libya, though he was sent to do so; but, fearing the length and desolateness of the journey, he turned back and left unaccomplished the task which had been set him by his mother. This man had used violence towards a maiden, the daughter of Zopyrus, son of Megabyzus, and King Xerxes was about to impale him for the offence, when his mother, who was a sister of Darius, begged him off, undertaking to punish his crime more heavily than the king himself had designed. She would force him, she said, to sail around Libya and return to Egypt by the Arabian gulf. Xerxes gave his consent; and Sataspes went down to Egypt, and there got a ship and crew, with which he set sail for the Pillars of Hercules. Having passed the Straits, he doubled the Libyan headland, known as Cape Soloeis, and proceeded southward. Following this course for many months over a vast stretch of sea, and finding that more water than he had crossed still lay ever before him, he put about, and came back to Egypt. Thence proceeding to the court, he made report to Xerxes, that at the farthest point to which he had reached, the coast was occupied by a dwarfish race, who wore a dress made from the palm tree. The people, whenever he landed, left their towns and fled away to the mountains; his men, however did them no wrong, only entering into their cities and taking some of their cattle. The reason why he had not sailed quite round Libya was, he said, because the ship stopped, and would no [sic] go any further. Xerxes, however, did not accept this account for true; and so Sataspes, as he had failed to accomplish the task set him, was impaled by the king's orders in accordance with the former sentence. One of his eunuchs, on hearing of his death, ran away with a great portion of his wealth, and reached Samos, where a certain Samian seized the whole. I know the man's name well, but I shall willingly forget it here.

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. How did "Libya" become known as "Africa"?
2. How accurate is this report by Herodotus?
3. How could circumnavigation around Africa be proved in Herodotus' day?
4. What are the major points emphasized by Herodotus?
5. What is the relevance of these perspectives today?

* The sun was to the north of them, because they were in the southern hemisphere.

THE BAT*

One day Eagle, the King of the birds, met Lion, King of the animals. As they browsed around searching for food they began to argue.

"Animals are best," declared Lion. "Our skill in hunting and strength in combat make us superior. Everywhere animals go we are feared and respected. Even the wind turns back before the mighty elephant's charge."

Eagle was not to be outdone. "Oh no, friend Lion," Eagle replied firmly, "birds are admired and revered around the world. You animals are confined to the earth. We birds soar through the skies. The wind is our slave. We can hunt with cunning and ease while you animals tire yourselves in the brush. It is clear that birds are superior."

So the argument continued through the day. Neither Lion nor Eagle could convince the other. As twilight approached their tempers were becoming hot. But they parted in apparent friendship. Secretly, Eagle had decided to call all the birds together to attack the animals. Certainly that should prove their superiority. But Lion had the same idea. All that night and all the next day Lion's messengers went from place to place informing all the animals. Eagle's messengers did likewise.

Bat hung silently from a tiny rock jutting out from the face of the cliff. His belly was still full of insects after his successful hunt the night before. Bat had chosen a spot in deep shade. He was warm and contented. Bat didn't even hear Eagle's messenger until the little bird perched nearby.

"You must join us," said the little bird. "All the birds will gather at dawn in the clearing by the river. Then we will attack the animals and show them that we are the greatest."

The bird spoke eloquently but Bat was unmoved. "Look at my fur," Bat said, "and see my teeth. You have chosen badly, little bird, for I am an animal."

Actually, Bat just wanted to continue his snooze undisturbed. But only a few minutes passed before a tiny monkey tugged at Bat's wing.

"Wake up quickly! We are late!" The monkey practically knocked Bat off his perch he spoke with such haste. "Lion sent me to bring all the animals to the clearing by the river. We will attack the birds at dawn. We must teach that Eagle and his kind a lesson. After tomorrow, the birds will bow before Lion, the King."

"Poor monkey, you've climbed this ragged cliff all because of me. But you are mistaken. Look at my wings," said Bat, "and watch me fly." Bat did an aerial pirouette and returned to his rock. "I am a bird. I cannot join your fight."

Dawn slowly crept up the sky. The stars went out one by one and were replaced by birds. They came from every direction and filled the sky like the Milky Way. Beneath the grass there was a whirring sound as all the tiny animals scurried to the clearing. The trees bent as great cats leapt from top to top. The ground shook with the footsteps of elephants and the water in the river boiled with the movements of the hippopotamuses.

Suddenly the battle began. It raged for many days and many nights. Bat clung to the cliff, not daring to venture out. Finally the sounds of battle died away.

Bat had been alone for a long long time. He wanted to talk to someone. Besides he had become very hungry. Bat flew down to the clearing by the river to look for insects. He saw the little bird who came to him before the great war.

"Hi there," Bat called. "How are you today?"

"Go away," said the bird. "You were not a friend when the birds needed you. You are not a friend now!"

Bat was saddened by the bird's harsh words. Then he saw the little monkey sitting by the river and eating a banana.

"Hi there," Bat called, even more cheerfully.

"Go away," the monkey snapped. "Get away from here and never come back. You were not a friend when the animals needed you. You are not a friend now!"

Bat looked around. The clearing was full of birds and animals, each going about its own business. They all turned their backs to Bat. Sorrowfully, Bat flew away. He returned to the cliffs. From that day, Bat only ventures out at night. He hunts alone or with other bats, fellow exiles from society.

*Adapted from a folk tale of southern Africa recorded by Dr. A.C. Jordan, the late chairman of the Department of African Languages and Literature, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

STONE AGE OLORGESAILIE:
ESTHETICS AMONG THE CARRION EATERS

by Boyce Rensberger

Scattered "rocks" are handaxes washed out of sediments 400,000 years old. The thatched roof protects excavation of intact "living floors."

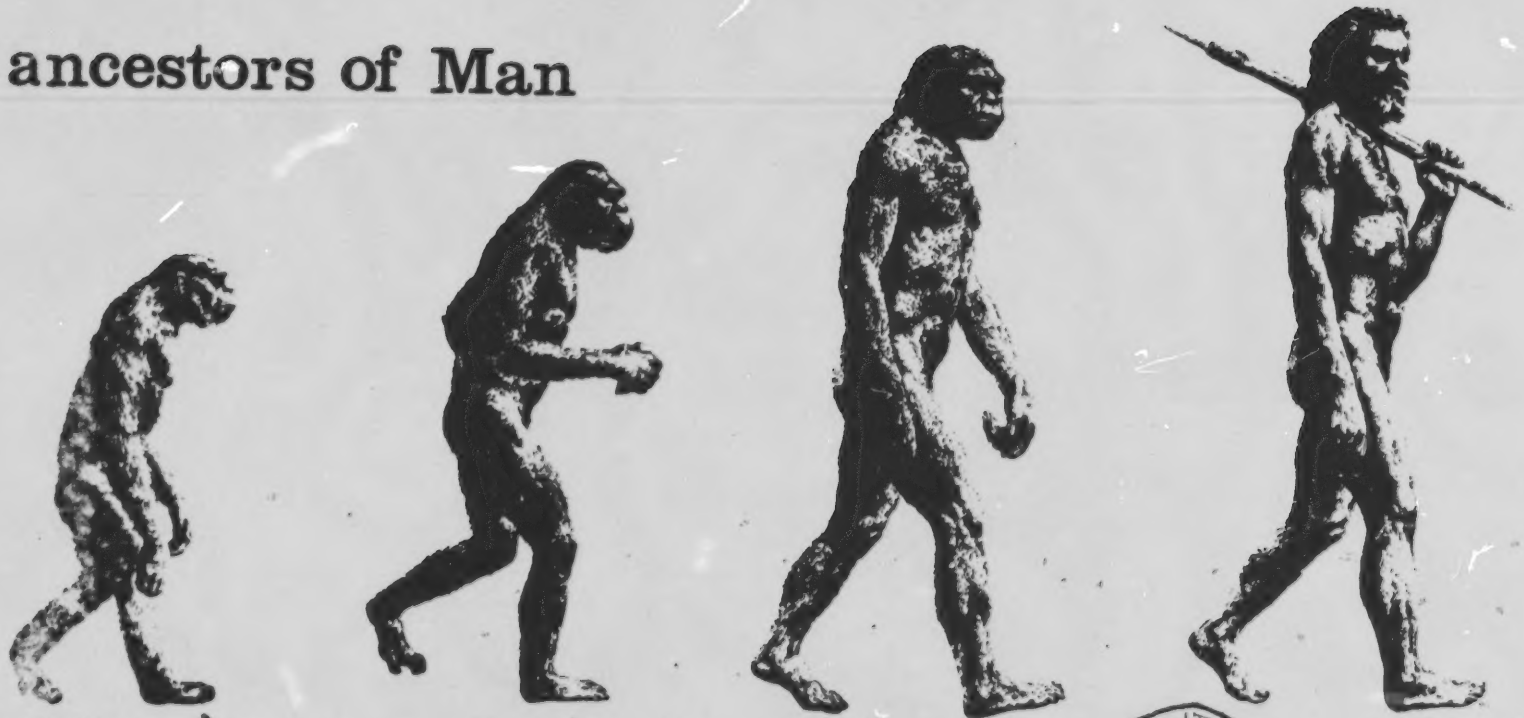
It is a wild and rugged place—hot, dry, uninhabited most of the year and then only by wandering Masai herdsmen tending their ragged cattle.

It is called Olorgesailie and it is 100 miles south of the Equator on the floor of Kenya's Rift Valley, where the earth's crust cracked open millions of years ago. Ever since, earthquakes have tossed the still widening and subsiding valley floor into a wrinkled and broken landscape.

Commanding the scene, five miles to the south, is Mt. Olorgesailie, a dormant volcano peaking half a mile above the valley floor. Fifteen miles to the east is the wall of the Rift Valley, a precipitous escarpment rising nearly 3,000 feet to the flat, more typical East African plains beyond.

Here, along one of the gentler slopes of the valley, the infrequent rains have for decades been delicately washing away the soil to expose one of the most remarkable displays of the technology of early man to be found anywhere. Here, lying on the surface of the ground, unrecognized until the 1940s, are hundreds of stone handaxes—multipurpose

The ancestors of Man



Age of Dinosaurs (150 million years ago, five feet to the left of this chart)

Ramapithecus

fossils remain unfound

?

Australopithecus

?

Homo erectus

Homo sapiens

20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 NOW

millions of years before present

Olorgesailie

121

122

cutting and whittling tools—carefully hewn by a race of people who stood very close, in the evolutionary sequence, to the earliest members of our own species. They lived perhaps 400,000 years ago and, if a sense of esthetics is any criterion of humanness, they were among the creatures who crossed the last great bridge from brutish hominid to feeling, sensitive human being.

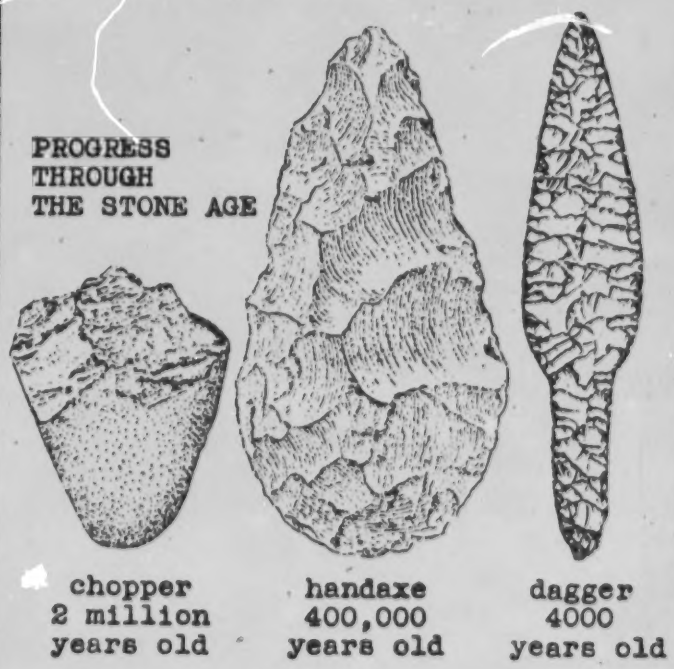
Because no bones of Olorgesailie Man have yet been found, he cannot be judged by the prominence of his brow ridges or the thickness of his skull. All we have to go on is his craftsmanship—the unmistakable fact, virtually ignored by anthropologists, that some of the handaxes he fashioned are shaped more regularly and symmetrically—more beautifully—than would have been necessary to produce an efficient and practical tool.

Most of the handaxes to be seen at Olorgesailie—where much of the material unearthed by archeologists has been allowed to remain as found—are irregular and lopsided, but clearly would be effective as cutters and choppers or even stabbers and slicers. A few, however, are more artfully sculptured. Care has been taken to flake away bits of stone so that edges are straight or gracefully curved. The proportions are quite pleasing, even to an eye schooled in Brancusi or Calder.

So, nearly half a million years ago, there was a people beginning to display what could only be called a sense of art and, it seems reasonable, a pride of craftsmanship. Until they made their handaxes as they did—that is, until a few of them chose to make their handaxes as they did—earlier men and pre-men had shown no more indication of an esthetic sense than to make crudely chipped pebbles that were used to chop up prey.

The handaxe, a pointed wedge of stone chipped to an oblong shape, was man's first standardized tool. Even today it can be counted as one of his most popular, billions having been made, with gradually improving technique, for more than half a million years, up until about 75,000 years ago. Handaxes have been found all over Africa, throughout most of Europe (where the first finds, in Saint Acheul, France, gave the technology its name, "Acheulean") and well into Asia Minor and India. But nowhere have they been found in the numbers to be seen at Olorgesaille, which, perhaps significantly, is situated near the geographic center of the Acheulean world.

An Olorgesailie Handaxe



The handaxe was undoubtedly a versatile tool. It can, and has been, in tests by modern man, used to cut up an animal carcass, dress and cut hides, chop down small trees, whittle poles and spears and carve crude wooden vessels. It was not hafted to a handle but held in the hand—probably from the side, to use as a knife.

The earliest handaxes look like little more than fortuitously shaped pieces of naturally shattered stone. Gradually, however, early men learned to select the more suitable minerals and to control the chipping and flaking process by rapping the stone with a cylinder of wood or bone to produce a more or less consistent shape. The average handaxe at Olorgesailie is nine inches long and weighs three and a half pounds. The biggest is a six pounder that is 13 inches long and must have been used by a large and powerful man.

At about the time primitive men were camping in small bands around the foot of Mt. Olorgesailie, the esthetic dimension of creativity appeared—probably not at Olorgesailie itself but at some other place like it and at a similar stage of evolution. Man sought for the first time to transform an abstract ideal into the concrete, at least in a material that would survive until today. The material world was made not only more useful and comfortable but more beautiful.

Most anthropologists consider that art did not truly come into being until the time of cave paintings some 370,000 years after Olorgesailie. Yet, it should be clear from the ancient handaxes that the artistic impulse that would create those magnificent and artistically mature paintings in European caves was already beginning to glimmer among man's beetle-browed and nearly chinless African ancestors.

Back then Olorgesailie was a different world. Although the volcanoes, then still active, rumbled and smoked, it was mostly peaceful by the shores of a wide lake that has long since dried up. Judging by fossil pollens found at the site, the lake was surrounded by swampy areas that receded into low scrub and trees along tributary streams. Away from the lake the valley was, as East Africa generally is today, open savannah, grassland with patches of low bush and lacy trees.

There were antelopes not greatly different from those of today, and warthogs, zebras and hippos. There were proto-giraffes with flat, moose-style horns. Giant wild pigs, as big as a modern hippo, rooted among the trees. Troops of giant baboons the size of bears dominated the few rocky high spots. Lions, sabre-toothed tigers and an ancestral elephant with downward curving tusks also lived around the lake.

And along the sandy banks of the streams that ran into the lake there lived the makers of the handaxes, probably *Homo erectus*—men and women of the same genus as we, but of an earlier species with a brain only three-quarters as big.

Imagine you are on one of the foothills of Mt. Olorgesailie with a pair of binoculars. About a mile or so away from the lake, near a long row of flat-topped Acacias that line a stream, there are moving forms—naked, dark people. One, a female, is squatting, and scratching at the ground with a stick. Now and again she picks up something and pops it into her mouth. A male is walking, quite erect, heading for a low rockpile where two others sit straight-legged on the ground. With the left hand they are holding stones against their left thighs and hammering them with what appear to be sticks or bones. The ground is littered with rock chips. Back, in the shade of a large tree, three little ones play under the watchful eye of another adult, a female.

From this distance they look like ordinary people and from the neck down—judging by the bones of *Homo erectus* found in other parts of the world—they are virtually indistinguishable from us.

Their heads, however, are rather different. With a low forehead, a heavy brow ridge shading the eyes, a flattish nose and weak-chinned jaws jutting forward, they are definitely not like us.

Because the earliest known agriculture did not begin until some 10,000 years ago, and from the ancient animal bones scientists have dug up at Olorgesailie, it is certain that these people lived by hunting the game that abounded in the valley, then as now, and by gathering edible shoots, berries and roots.

The most common bones are those of various antelopes, hippo and an ancestral zebra. There are also the remains of elephant and an extinct species of wild pig. Virtually all of the long bones have been split for the marrow and the skulls bashed for the brains. There is no evidence of fire, and some

authorities have concluded that Olorgesailie Man ate his food raw. One expert, however, has argued that ashes do not preserve well in this part of the world and that no judgement can be made.

On one occupation floor exposed by carefully lifting away the overlying soil, archeologists have found a large number of baboon bones, enough to indicate that a minimum of 63 adults and juveniles were butchered and eaten at this place.

Dr. Glynn L. Isaac, before joining the faculty at Berkeley, spent four years excavating and studying Olorgesailie in the 1960s. He has raised the possibility that the large number of baboon remains, correlating in age and sex distribution with living baboon troops today, may represent not the accumulation of many successful hunting trips, but the single massacre of an entire troop.

Even today, Isaac said, the Hadza people of northern Tanzania occasionally band together at night to surround a sleeping baboon troop. The Hadza then shoot a few arrows into their midst and club the frightened animals to death as they attempt to break out of the trap.

Olorgesailie Man had no bows and arrows, but a few rocks tossed among the baboons should have served as well.

It was in grassland and among scattered trees such as these that Olorgesailie Man hunted his game. In those days a shallow lake flooded much of the foreground, almost to the foot of Mt. Olorgesailie.

Louis Leakey, who with his wife Mary conducted the first serious studies of Olorgesailie some 30 years ago, suggested another method of hunting. Few other authorities accept the interpretation, but the speculation is intriguing in any event.

Among the many handaxes, cleavers (chopping tools with flat rather than pointed edges), and rocky debris, Leakey also found what he considered to be clusters of three nearly spherical stones two to three inches in diameter. Cobblestones and spheroids are common at Olorgesailie and other sites of the same vintage. They are generally thought to be pounders for mashing up tough roots and seeds or bashers for opening bones and skulls. Some speculate they were even missiles for warding off wild animals. (Olorgesailie Man was prey as well as predator.)

Leakey contended the 13 groups of three stones that he found were the remains of bolases. The bolas, a weapon now used only by some South American Indians and some Eskimos, consists of three spherical stones tethered to a single knot. The bolas is swung around the head and let fly at the legs of the hunted animal, entangling them and bringing him down.

If Olorgesailie man had invented the bolas, a relatively sophisticated device, the leather pouches and thongs would have long since rotted away to leave three closely spaced spherical stones. Similar evidence for the bolas has not been found in any other prehistoric site of comparable age. Most authorities consider the spatial arrangements of the "bolas stones" coincidental or less. Picking out the spheroid trios from all the single round stones is about like finding constellations among the stars.

There is, however, an intriguing other fact. Although no modern African tribe is known to use the bolas for hunting, some groups in nearby Uganda and Tanzania have a "bolas and hoop" children's game. The object is to bring down a rolling hoop with a bolas of three little pebbles. There is also a "spear and hoop" game that young boys play to learn an important hunting skill. Could the "bolas and hoop" game have survived from its days as a training method even after adult hunters switched to superior stone-tipped spears?

A more probable method of hunting was to drive the animals into soft ground, perhaps the marshes around Lake Olorgesailie, and to club or stone them to death as the animals wallowed hopelessly in the mud. At Olduvai Gorge, 120 miles to the

A trench through one living floor reveals that it rests upon two feet of sediments burying an earlier campsite.

After this elephant leg bone—left from a Stone Age feast—was dug up, curious Masai herdsmen hacked at it with their spears. A guard points to patches over the damage.

south, Leakey found the intact leg bones of some animals standing vertically in the now solidified mud, suggesting that the game became stuck in the swamps and were killed and butchered down to the mudline. In Spain, Clark Howell, another Berkeley anthropologist, has found the intact right half of an elephant at a *Homo erectus* site. He suggests that about the only way an elephant could lose only its left half would be if the ancient hunters drove it into a bog where it was killed and fell, embedding its right side. The bones of the left side are probably to be found, disjointed and smashed open, at some nearby, still-buried feasting site.

At Olorgesailie scientists have located what appears to be a hippo butchery. Most of the bones of a single hippo were found there, left in just the state and with just enough handaxes nearby to suggest that the hunters either killed and cut up the hippo on the spot or found him there already dead.

This raises one of the least appealing interpretations of the life of early man. Though, doubtless, they sought their protein on the hoof, it is entirely reasonable that they would not turn down several hundred pounds of meat if they found it already dead. Our ancestors were probably carrion eaters, scavengers, competing with the vultures and hyenas for food.

It may have been, however, that man did not always have to compete for the same dead animals. With the invention of the handaxe, he would have been able to fill an ecological niche theretofore vacant. The hide of elephants and hippos is too tough for ordinary scavengers to break through. When the beasts die (they have few natural enemies), the worms usually take them. With his surprisingly sharp handaxe, however, Olorgesailie Man would have had no trouble hacking his way into a dead pachyderm.

Like the hunter-gatherer peoples of today, Olorgesailie Man undoubtedly ate a greater variety of foods than industrialized peoples who depend on a few domesticated species. The Rift Valley was abundant with game and, contrary to stereotype, the life of prehistoric man was probably not one of privation and hardship. Some studies of the Hadza and the Bushmen of the Kalahari, both hunting and gathering peoples, show that the adult male hunters can meet the food needs of their families in less than 20 per cent of their waking hours. The bulk of the day is spent in leisure and in crafting new tools. The women, traditionally the gatherers, can find all the vegetables their families need in less than half a day.

"It is probable," Isaac says, "that the widespread notion that early paleolithic life was filled with deprivation and the need for continuous questing after food is erroneous."

For all the bones that have been found at Olorgesailie, none have belonged to the human beings themselves. This contrasts with the situation at many other Acheulean sites and suggests that the dead were removed, perhaps to an open field for scavengers. This is the practice with some modern African tribes, who consider it a far more civilized and natural way of dealing with the dead than preserving corpses. Almost certainly the dead at Olorgesailie were not buried, a custom that did not appear until about 40,000 or 50,000 years ago.

The lack of human remains also suggests that cannibalism was not a significant practice. Elsewhere, in human cultures dating up to modern times, the split and cooked bones of men have been clear evidence of cannibalism.

From the size of the occupation floors that have been found at Olorgesailie and from the quantities of worked stone, it is possible to deduce that bands of two different sizes lived there. The smaller was about four or five people, probably a nuclear family, while the larger comprised about 25 to 30 individuals. Perhaps several families. Most of the sites appear to have been occupied for at least a few months. The people appear to have moved away from time to time, perhaps to follow migrating herds. Slight differences in stoneworking style suggest that different groups with characteristic patterns of craftsmanship used the area at one time or another.

Over tens of thousands of years, changes in climate caused Lake Olorgesailie to fluctuate, first shrinking in diameter and then expanding to flood areas that were situated a mile or more from its earlier shores. When the water was high, aquatic sediments slowly buried the flooded occupation floors, handaxes and all. Then, as the lake gradually receded over many thousands of years, new sandy beaches were created over the buried handaxes. New bands of hunters moved in and, in some cases, set up housekeeping only a foot or two above the artifacts and garbage heaps of their predecessors.

Again and again the lake expanded and contracted, creating layer upon layer of alternating beach and bottom sediment. From time to time volcanoes showered ash on the area, further burying and preserving whatever was there.

In an area little bigger than a football field, no fewer than 14 occupation floors have been found, one containing over a ton of handaxes, cleavers and spheroids. In one place there was even what might be called a handaxe factory, judging by the high proportion of stone flakes and chips, the waste of manufacturing the implements.

Today the lake has dried up completely, leaving only a wide, shallow depression dotted with Acacias and Comiphoras. Giraffes browse among

Homo erectus as he might have looked at Olorgesailie. (Artists' conceptions and misconceptions of the appearance of early men often vary even though all are mentally fleshing out the same bones. Compare this version of *Homo erectus* by a British Museum artist with that on page two by an artist at Time-Life Books.)

the trees. Lions prowl the grassland. Leopards stalk baboons. And, in recent years, elephants have appeared in fair number.

Most of what has been unearthed at Olorgesailie remains exactly as it was found. Thatched roofs protect the occupation floors exposed by anthropologists over years of excavation. A rickety catwalk carries visitors over the eroding hillside that first gave away the area as an important archeological site.

That was in 1944 when the Leakeys were tramping over the Rift Valley floor looking for potential sites. Mary Leakey reached the crest of a small hill and saw, on the eroding downside, hundreds of handaxes lying on the surface. Higher up on the slope a few were jutting out of the bank, still partly resting on the floor where they were dropped some 400,000 years earlier. The next hard rain might wash them out.

With little money and the wartime rationing of supplies, the Leakeys could work the site only on weekends. Later they were assisted by three Italian prisoners of war being held by the British in what was then Kenya Colony.

In 1947 a council of Masai elders was persuaded to give a 52-acre area containing the sites to the government. It became the smallest and most unusual of Kenya's national parks. The first warden was one of the Italian POWs who returned from Italy to take up his post. More recently the area's status has been changed from National Park to National Monument.

After the Leakeys went on to Olduvai Gorge, little scientific effort was put into the site until the mid-1960s when Isaac, then a doctoral candidate at Cambridge, became warden. For four years he conducted extremely detailed new excavations and made rigorous statistical analyses of the stone tools that yielded many of the current interpretations.

Far from the beaten path, Olorgesailie offers visitors and scientists only the most rudimentary of accommodations. The walls and roof of this "banda" are made entirely of bundles of grass.

When Isaac left, Olorgesailie again became scientifically dormant.

And so it remains today, visited only by the occasional tourist who doesn't mind taking two hours to drive the 40 miles from Nairobi, bumping down the rocky road into the Rift Valley and across the floor, fording seasonal streams to reach the site.

Only five per cent of the area known to have been inhabited by prehistoric man has been excavated. For lack of money and because the hottest area of anthropology today reaches back for fossils ten times as old, 95 per cent of the evidence Olorgesailie Man left including, perhaps, his own bones, is likely to remain buried for at least a few more years.

Boyce Rensberger is a science editor and writer for the *New York Times*. This article is reprinted with his permission and that of the Alicia Patterson Foundation and the L.S.B. Leakey Foundation. The author is an Alicia Patterson Foundation award winner. He wrote this and other articles while in Africa during 1972 and 1973.

BUNDU

Bundu, or Sande, is a women's semisecret association. It is widespread in Sierra Leone and Liberia.

Bundu is primarily a means by which to instruct young girls about their role in society. Before Western-style schools were common, it was the major educational "institution" for women.

The officers of *Bundu* may also serve as a family court. They hear marital disputes, decide divorces, and punish cases of sexual assault involving a minor. At the highest level, *Bundu* officials participate in political decision-making in traditional West African Societies. *Bundu* works in conjunction with Poro, the most powerful men's association. Partly as a consequence, women in this part of West Africa may assume regional and even paramount chieftaincies, Even today, *Bundu* and Poro operate parallel to modern administrative systems. Sometimes they are acknowledged by the official governments and allowed to function as local courts giving decisions based on common law.

Madame Yoko (left) and Nancy Tucker (right) ruled powerful chieftaincies in Sierra Leone around the turn of the century.

The association is highly structured. At the top is the *Sowa* or head of a *Bundu* lodge. She is assisted by senior and junior officials. It is from among this second level that the impersonator of the *Bundu* spirit is chosen. Her identity is kept secret beneath a helmet-like mask and raffia and sackcloth costume. She also may carry the ceremonial staff which belongs to the *Sowa*. It is she who dances on ceremonial occasion and presents the *Bundu* girls, like a group of debutantes, after their bush-school training. *Bundu* officials are paid by contributions of money or food and other necessities from the girls' families and fiancés.

The Bush School

Girls around the ages of ten to fourteen leave their families in villages or towns for a period of seclusion at a *Bundu* lodge. A bush shool may be constructed in any unsettled area known commonly as

"the bush." During this initiation period girls may or may not be circumcised. In either case, they are given the information about sex and childbearing that makes them eligible for marriage after graduation. In this lodge they are instructed by the *Sowa*, who is often also the local midwife. She and her assistants teach cooking, sewing, nursing, sanitation, handicrafts, and other women's tasks. They are taught to be hard-working and modest in their behavior. The *Bundu* girls are expected always to show special respect toward older people. They learn songs and dances which they will perform publicly upon their return from the bush. These will be repeated on ceremonial occasions throughout their lives. Girls who graduate in the same class share a bond that continues until they die.

Graduation from *Bundu* is a joyous event in the towns and villages. First there is an exhibition of dancing and singing. The *Bundu* officials compliment the girls on their superior character and virtue. All the girls are sworn to secrecy concerning the knowledge and rituals they have learned recently, then led in a procession from house to house. Since the girls are considered marriageable only after this *Bundu* initiation, marriages previously contracted by their parents are announced publicly. Actual marriage may still be deferred for several years.

Traditionally girls might spend three or four months in the bush school. Today the constraints of modern urban life and Western-style school systems have reduced the time to a few weeks. The bush schools are normally confined to school holidays. The institution continues to flourish, however, even in urban areas like Freetown, Sierra Leone. Government officials have capitalized on its existence. They use it to provide information, for example, on nutrition, modern hygiene, and family planning.

St. Joseph's Convent, Sierra Leone

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THE GIRL WHO HAD TO DIE

Monica Betsy Onukagua

Adube is the spirit of water who owns a stream in Nkanta. She also claims to own the town and the inhabitants therein. Those who have seen her reported to others that she is an elegant woman with three heads, seven legs, five hands, and she goes about always with seven children, three on the left and four on the right.

The stream was named after her. Adube forbids so many things in her stream: no one should wash blue clothes in her stream; certain leaves should not be cleaned in Adube; light complexioned girls should be kept out of the stream. Mostly, she wants the people of Nkanta to dress up always in white clothes. She has a mandate over the town and is purported to have given barren old women children in remuneration for their services and worship.

In Nkanta, there are four market days, namely, Nkwo, Eke, Olie, and Afor. Eke's market day is predominantly owned by Adube, the water spirit. No soul ever goes near this stream when the sun is overhead or very intense, particularly those who have been reincarnated by Adube. Those who doubted in the past learned lots of lessons, and those who refused to compromise with the above custom, met their fate.

Kirishy was born by an old woman (Omu) who had served Adube all her life. She was purported to have been incarnated several times and most recently came to life in the year 1940, December 25. Because Christ was born on this date, Omu believed Kirishy was a blessing to her and named her Kirishy after (Christy) the name Christmas.

After a few days, Omu consulted an oracle to predict what her daughter's fate would be. "This child was born as a gratification for your service to Adube. She is Adube reincarnated. She may or may not live long, but fear her at the age of sixteen and on Eke's day. Always be in on this market day or else you will regret it. Never permit her to go to the stream on Eke market day. She is going to be an outstandingly beautiful girl and do well in school," said the oracle.

Omu was unhappy and happy. She was happy because she had a baby of her choice, and she was sad because she feared losing her at the age of sixteen. At home with her daughter, she looked at the girl and said, "Until the time comes, I will know what to do and how to get hold of her. She is nothing but *Ogbanje*" (a child who has repeated her life cycle several times).

Omu came home and narrated the history of her daughter to a few close friends and relatives. Some consoled her, while others said to her "Neva Min" (never mind).

Kirishy grew up to be a very beautiful girl, the epitome of her age group. She had so many qualities which differentiated her from other girls and made her the topic of the day. She was tall, light complexioned, and well shaped with a straight pair of legs. Rumors said Kirishy's face was a mirror to those who stared at her. She had dreamy, romantic eyes, and her nose was like a bird's beak. In school, Kirishy was an outstanding figure. Before boys, she was a model they adored.

Omu admired her daughter so much so that she talked of nothing before other women but Kirishy. Soon they became jealous and murmured, "Kirishy is *Ogbanje* and will soon die. Wonder if she will live again after she dies?"

Before Kirishy grew up, she was well indoctrinated by her mother about Adube. But Kirishy had one little fault, she always doubted the existence of spirits and witches. This may have been partly because she was a Christian and partly because she was overprotected by her mother. She never believed in Adube and was not prepared to honor the Eke market day. Many a time, she tried to accompany her friends to the stream on Eke market day, but was prevented.

The time was fast approaching when Kirishy would either obey or go back to the underworld. The 15th day of March 1957 was a red letter day, naturally predestined for Kirishy either to live or to

die. Miss Dum was Kirishy's teacher and wanted her to fetch a tin of water from the stream. The request coincided with Eke's day when Kirishy was forbidden near the stream premises. Kirishy could not disobey her teacher by rejecting a demand, or else she would have to be punished.

How did Kirishy avert this request? Silently she stood looking at the teacher and at last she exploded. "Miss, my mother told me not to go to Adube on Eke's day." "Don't be superstitious," intoned the teacher. "You are a Christian." Kirishy wept bitterly and mourned, for she had seen so many who deliberately died owing to disobedience. She collected her friends to intercede, but Miss Dum, being a devout Christian, could not give a second thought to superstitious ideas.

Unfortunately for Kirishy, her mother had traveled sixty miles away from Nkanta, and was not expected to return home until night. Reluctantly, Kirishy went to the forbidden stream accompanied by two of her friends.

A yard before the shrine of Adube, Kirishy shouted, "Who is that?" Her whole body was shivering. She saw nothing but death. Death, indeed, for no being can exist after seeing a spirit. Her friends were miserable and wept for her.

One of her friends tried to find out what precipitated her shouting, but Kirishy could not speak until after thirty minutes. With quivering lips she said, "I saw a tall, fat woman with three heads, seven hands, and five legs. She had seven children with her, three on the left and four on the right. Each of them pointed at me beckoning me to come, calling that my time has consummated." "What?" cried her friends, still going toward the spring. "Mama," shouted Kirishy again at the entrance of the stream. At this moment, she was at the equilibrium of her life cycle. She gasped for breath. With tears, her friends prayed and at last she got up, rested, left her empty tin in the stream, then went home.

Omu was nowhere to be seen. She had forgotten all that an oracle told her about Kirishy's sixteenth year on earth. At last, Omu came back, but was surprised to see her daughter being surrounded by friends and relations. She wept bitterly, and all of a sudden, she recollected what had been told her in connection with Adube, and Kirishy's sixteenth year of age. She knew immediately that the hour had come when she would again be childless.

Kirishy sat near the fire to get warm. Adube was beckoning to her. Kirishy refused, shouting "Mba! Mba! (No! No!). It is not yet time! Omu is very good to me." Omu placed her hands around her departing daughter, begging both the Christian God and the traditional Gods to have compassion on her daughter, but the invisible forces were beyond those of humans. She invited native doctors to help avert the death of her only daughter. They tried and failed.

Soon, the time came when Kirishy was to disappear from the arms of her beloved mother. It was 12 midnight when Adube came back with the underworld powder and mesmerized Kirishy. The native doctors were sent to sleep by means of mesmerism. Adube then blew the mystic powder on Kirishy's face, sending her to everlasting sleep. It was death. Kirishy was dead. Christianity had no power over her for she was predestined and her fate was predicted early to her mother.

NOTE: Monica Onukagua is a native Ibo writer of many short stories and a cookbook of African recipes. She offers this article as a true story of her homeland. For further insight into Ibo and Nigerian culture, she recommends the books of Chinua Achebe: *Things Fall Apart, No Longer at Ease, A Man of the People,* and *Arrow of God.*

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WITCHCRAFT BELIEFS AND THE ROLE OF SECRET SOCIETIES

Medicine Man, Rungwe District, Tanzania, East Africa, 1969.

The belief in witchcraft is a closed, self-perpetuating, and self-encasing system of thought. It provides important answers for people pressured to change their traditional habits.

Belief in witchcraft and others practicing it, provides a means of reducing tension among people. It can reduce competition between individuals. Mysterious events—calamities, untimely deaths, and other misfortunes can be explained. Fear of accusation can insure that local codes of etiquette are observed. Deviants can be censored as witches.

Witchcraft is a system of thought which [illegible]s responsibility for unfortunate events to be transferred to objects, spirits, and to persons considered to be social outcasts, misfits, or rebels. It is a system of control and may be used unconsciously, or with conscious intent.

Disclaimers about African witchcraft state that "similar European and American beliefs have only recently declined," and "that all people have reverted to explanations based on the irrational, the mysterious, or the supernatural."

Man's tortured search for explanations of cause, the disclaimer goes on, has led to more irrational beliefs than those manifested by peoples in Africa. Here, the thought systems supporting witchcraft beliefs reflect the problems of small, agrarian tribal

groups. Their lives are harsh. Uncertainties of nature understandably cause people to seek answers. Often they are found in a supernatural world of spirits, shades, and witches.

Witchcraft beliefs are part of the social fabric in these rural areas. Without understanding such beliefs, there is little chance of comprehending the complex behavior of many Africans who have not been acquainted with what we call "scientific" explanations. The needed insight is difficult to obtain. Those who embrace witchcraft live in a mystical world of their own. It is largely impenetrable when only logic is used as the probe. It serves to remind us of other ways of perceiving reality.

Witchcraft cures in Kenya.

Witchcraft has been recorded in Tanzania, to take but one example, since early European explorers ventured inland from the Coast. Sir Richard Burton in 1860 related that in some parts of central Tanzania witchcraft was punished by the stake. Heaps of ashes and blackened bones along the track, he wrote, were mute evidence of recent tragedies. John Speke in 1863 reported similar findings in Zaramo country near the coast. He noted that execution was carried out mostly for witchcraft and adultery. Trial by ordeal—forcing the suspect's hand into boiling water to determine guilt—was common.

Traditionally, in most areas of Tanzania, witches were condemned to death either by a chief or a group of elders. The mode of execution often related to the witch's crime. For example, among the Nyakyusa, a punishment for witches suspected of bringing crocodiles to the village was to be placed in a fish trap in a crocodile-infested area. Among the Nyamwezi, witches believed to be in communication with hyenas were mutilated and left to the hyenas.

There is evidence that witchcraft and witchcraft accusations have increased during the past decade. Tanzanian elders are reporting more witchcraft than during their youth. During the early German colonial period, 1880-1900, witchcraft was rarely reported. Few healers, sorcerers or witch-finders attracted attention. Yet, during the last days of the British colonial administration, 1956-1961, there occurred a number of witchcraft trials, resulting in fines and imprisonments.

There may be several explanations for this apparent increase: As tribal wars and other illicit communal activities were banned by European administrators, increased witchcraft practices may have provided alternative outlets for tension and competition. Moreover, it can be expected that these practices will continue to flourish under the post-colonial African leadership. Witchcraft can be a response to modern pressures, particularly the stresses not easily resolved by either traditional or modern ways.

- MEANINGS -

Witches exist in the minds of those who embrace the beliefs. Their witchcraft is innate and usually covert. Some professed witches may admit or brag about their power. Or it may be unconscious or suppressed. Sorcery, on the other hand, is the conscious practice of evil. A sorcerer practices learned techniques for malicious purposes. Sorcerers manipulate medicines, poisons, charms, animal parts, and other paraphernalia. A wizard is a sorcerer who is also believed to be a witch. Additionally there are practitioners who are not considered evil. These include witch-finders, medicine men, herbalists, diviners, oracles, soothsayers, and those who believe themselves to be prophets.

Underlying witchcraft practices may be religious elements from ancestor worship, animism, and tribal mythology. In East Africa there are often elements drawn from Islamic beliefs concerning animal sacrifice and polygamy. In some areas there

are traces from Judeo-Christian thought in the form of messianic cults and prophet movements.

Witchcraft beliefs are usually articulated through secret societies. The practices make up a self-reinforcing system. Leaders impose ideas and practices through initiation rites for the new members. An overall effect of such secret societies is to create an environment permitting if not encouraging belief in the supernatural and a climate of acceptance for irrational, mystical thought.

- BASWEZI -

Secret societies in Tanzania exist for a number of reasons. Some are organized to educate young members of a tribe into its customs. Others seek to give protection and to heal. Still others may specialize in communicating with the ancestors, hunting certain animals or driving out witches. Some societies are open only to clan members, or to a particular age group such as elders or young men. The Baswezi, a secret society widespread in Tanzania, is an excellent example of how such organizations can help to support beliefs in witchcraft and sorcery.

Baswezi, according to its leaders in the Tabora region of Burundi, Rwanda, and western Tanzania, originated in the Congo and Rwanda. This took place *before* the coming of Europeans in 1880. Baswezi's initial purposes were to heal the sick, to give advice, and to bring good fortune to its members. By 1930 the society had spread and become well known.

The early records of the British administration, particularly in the 1920s, describe Baswezi in diabolical terms. According to the British, its members engaged in secret rites, human sacrifice, "black magic," and poisoning. Adultery and incest were suspected. Some administrators, moreover, believed it to be a "secret bolshevism" opposed to the advance of European government and "civilization." In recent years there is no evidence for the early charges. And the society has not had any political aspirations since Tanzania's independence in 1961.

Baswezi is linked to ancestor worship. It has its own mythical history and hierarchy of gods and leaders. The authority structure includes the local chief as the supreme leader. Under him exist a number of progressively less powerful officials. High rank is ascribed by birth, but it may also be attained by bringing in new recruits ("sons"). Family-wide membership is most common, although individuals may join. Christians are usually excluded—Muslims, or quasi-Muslims who also practice ancestor worship and variations on animism are often members.

When new members are initiated into the society, they take new, Baswezi names. Members also speak in a distorted tongue. They offer prayers in the form of vows ("If I safely pass this lion, I will give Baswezi two goats."). The leaders' regalia includes the *kishingo*, a leather crown of cowrie shells with an ox tail attached. The leader carries a *kiranda*, an ox-tail, fly-whisk, and *nkimba*, a rattle made from a gourd. Other symbols of office include beads, drums, and spears.

Sick men are often taken to the society for treatment. They become members thereafter. Curing usually takes place in a secret bush camp. There, as part of the ritual, Baswezi leaders in full regalia gaze at the ill person for a number of days. Medicines are administered. Special food is prepared and beer is brewed. The members drum and dance around the ill person. A Nyamwezi peasant related how he joined the society. His experience was typical: "Baswezi men came to me and took me to the bush when I was sick and could not walk. I was crippled, but when they finished the *ngoma* [dance] and let me go, I could walk. Then I became a Baswezi."

Baswezi provides opportunities for members to display leadership abilities. Early reports indicate that it was necessary to perform ritual murder to attain high rank in the society. These institutional forms of killing may have been methods of eliminating unwanted tribal members or known criminals. Since World War II, there has been little evidence of Baswezi murders. But the threat of murder undoubtedly serves as a method of local control. In some cases, moreover, the society's name may be used as a cover-up for a random killing. The society leaders, however, do perform services as diviners or oracles. They occasionally dispense both good and bad medicines. They may also threaten to use witchcraft, and capitalize on fear and ignorance concerning the society's exact activities. Sometimes an individual comes under Baswezi attack. This may be in the form of

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poisoning, beating, or extortion of property. In lesser cases Baswezi members may descend as unwelcome guests. They insist on the traditional etiquette and, in effect, eat their host out of house and home.

Baswezi secret society leader (left) and retainer, Nyamwezi chiefdom, Central Tanzania. Note the leader's *nkimba*, symbol of his office.

Baswezi is often a kind of local social action organization. It may organize such local festivities as Independence Day celebrations and Republic Day ceremonies. It reportedly is strong enough to have an office in the capital, Dar es Salaam. The society claims broad membership in tribes of western Tanzania. Overall, Baswezi provides intratribal cohesion as well as healing services.

Societies such as the Baswezi, however, are often accused of involvement in witchcraft murders. Two main patterns seem to occur. First, the secret society is made an agent of village control. It is engaged collectively in dispatching an unwanted villager, criminal, or senile chief, usually by suffocation or poisoning. (For some tribes, in fact, the murder of senile chiefs was traditionally accepted and expected.) Second, secret society murders may occur simply for profit or personal revenge. Baswezi, for example, was implicated in the "lionmen" murders in Singida district in the 1940s and early 1950s. In these cases demented youths were trained by "keepers" to attack designated victims with sets of lion claws. Blame, or indeed the fact of murder rather than lion attack, was hard to prove. When these cases were brought to trial, some of the accused claimed their victims had practiced witchcraft. The murders, they alleged, were therefore justified. Usually the authorities found the witchcraft accusations untrue.

Other societies, similar to Baswezi, are organized for more specialized tasks. Medical practitioners, healers, or witch-finding groups exist and have special rites of membership. Traditional dance groups can also be semisecret. They serve to reduce tensions and maintain local solidarity. The Basumba, in the Sukuma-Nyamwezi areas, is essentially composed of roving work parties. Mostly young men, they travel the country threshing grain, building huts, and harvesting crops for pay. Bayeye, among the Nyamwezi, was originally a society for snake charmers. The members secretly built up immunity to venom through small arm incisions, and thereafter demonstrated fearless control of snakes.

Many of the secret and semisecret societies are gradually losing support. Some have adjusted their activities to contemporary concerns and opened membership to younger members. Nevertheless, the basic contribution of the secret societies is to perpetuate conditions that support witchcraft beliefs.

- CONCLUSION -

In precolonial times accusations of witchcraft often led to poison ordeals. Even when the accused indicated innocence by vomiting the poison, banishment or execution might follow. Traditional punishment varied according to the popularity, status, and economic position of the accused—and that of the victim.

European colonial administrators established trial procedures for those accused of witchcraft. It became an offense to attempt witchcraft—or to accuse anyone of practicing it.

Since Tanzanian independence, official witchcraft investigations may be initiated either by the local political party, officials representing the district council, or local police. Witch-finding too has been declared illegal. The success of Edom Mwasanguti, recorded in another reading, is testimony, however, to the continuing demand for such services.

Dance and choral groups praising Edom.

A MEETING

"Join us for the ceremony," invited Edom Mwasanguti. He was sitting in a tea shop in the town of Tukuyu, Tanzania. Across the table sat Fieldstaff Associate Norman N. Miller, who would report on "A Meeting."

The meeting was held about two miles from Edom's house in a clearing surrounded by banana trees. When we arrived, a crowd of some three hundred had gathered. They were singing hymns of Protestant origin.

I was given a chair at the edge of the clearing. The assistant who directed me to this seat dressed like Edom. Both wore official-looking bush jackets, knee socks, and hats.

When the singing ended, Edom stepped in front of the crowd and was greeted by a rousing chant. Another hymn was sung. This time the name Edom was substituted for that of Jesus. All the while, six young women were making gestures of adulation toward the 'prophet.' They danced forward and backward while singing.

Then Edom addressed the crowd. He thanked them for their faith. He assured them that evil witches can be eliminated. He spoke at length of the many evils brought by witches. But those of true faith, he explained, could be spared the horrors of disease, ill-fortune, and untimely death. Concluding, Edom asked all those who were afflicted to come forward. They were to form lines on his right.

There was a general commotion. A murmured singing continued. And gradually some twenty women formed a double line. Farther back there were six or seven men. These, one an Asian, emerged from the crowd and shuffled into another line. Another man was carried forward on a stretcher.

Edom started down the line of men first. He touched each one on the chest. Listening to their

"body rhythms" he would nod his head. Then Edom walked back to the center of the clearing. There a basin of water, a bar of soap, and a towel were arranged near a bush. After touching each "patient," he washed.

When Edom approached, the old man lying on the stretcher began to talk rapidly. For eight days he had been ill and was paralyzed. Edom calmed him, touching his chest and murmuring softly. The old man nodded.

The next two men had been brought to the "meeting" by their village elders. The elders wanted to have them both "cleaned." One young man was accused of bewitching the other. As Edom touched their chests the men stood passively side by side. They eyed both Edom and each other but said nothing.

Next was the Asian man. He had crossed the Livingstone Mountains coming from Songea southeast of here. There he had been hospitalized for what were called "fits." Whatever his ailment—perhaps epilepsy—the treatment he received in the hospital had not helped his condition. He lived in a village where the Africans accused him of being a witch. To allay their suspicions, he wanted to be "cleansed."

These first encounters with Edom's healing powers were brief. The afflicted could stay overnight near Edom's house and receive further treatments and medicines.

As Edom moved closer to the line of females, wails and shouts rang out from women apparently suffering varied forms of hysteria. Those in the larger crowd watched silently for the most part. One group, however, continued to sing softly, a musical background for Edom's procedures.

As Edom approached the first woman in line, others began to wail and shake from the shoulders. He touched the woman's neckbone with his fist. Immediately, one of the wailing women shuffled forward with stiff tottering steps. Her eyes were fixed. She lurched onto the ground and began rolling in the dirt.

One of the woman's friends came to help her up. Both returned to their places in line as others continued the wailing.

Systematically, Edom went down the line. He ignored the commotion. Of those to whom he talked, one believed herself bewitched. She said she was unable to become pregnant. Another bewitched woman told of frequent fainting spells. Accused of witchcraft by her neighbors, a third woman had come because of their insistence.

One hysterical woman had been in that condition for a week. No particular reason seemed apparent. Edom calmed her.

The woman who had rolled on the ground continued to wail until Edom came to her. As he touched her with freshly washed hands, she stopped wailing. Yet she continued to stare straight ahead. Others told Edom that two of her children had died, both recently. And her in-laws accused her of witchcraft. Obviously, she was beside herself with anguish.

Those who came to Edom brought an assortment of gourds, bottles, and leather pouches. Some contained medicines for Edom to see. The others served as containers for the medicines Edom might prescribe. As Edom finished with each patient, his

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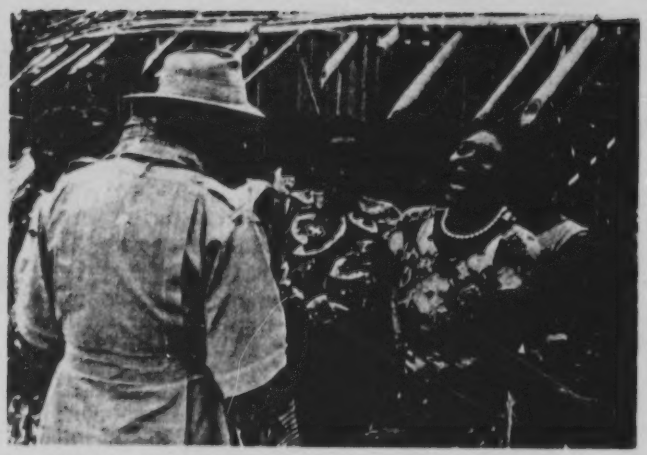

Women treated for witchcraft while others wail.

Edom greeting followers before a cleansing ceremony.

assistant collected their containers and attached yellow tags identifying the owner.

Coming to the end of the line, Edom returned to the bush. Again he washed his hands. Then the "prophet" stood erect.

As if signaled, the choral group began another hymn. The patient's wailing soon faded, drowned out by the singing.

Four or five people came forward. Most were elders. They praised Edom's work. One old man testified to Edom's success. He told the story of a girl who had not spoken for three years. He said Edom cured her. Another described how "good" Edom was. According to this testimony, Edom took no money, meat, or milk. Nor did he beat or cut the witches he found.

There were more testimonies, alternating with the singing. "You witch-doctors, you have no power now" was the theme of one song. "Edom has seen you," it continued,"Go, you witches, go!" Vaguely resembling the well-known "Hallelujah Chorus," was "Edom has come...*Hallelujah*!"

Toward the end of the meeting there were new events. Several young girls danced forward and presented a large bowl of eggs to Edom. It was a traditional sign of hospitality in this culture and numerous others. Their "prophet" thanked them. He assured the crowd that their faith was well placed. Finally, with a hand-waving gesture reminiscent of the one which opened the meeting, Edom withdrew.

The assistant closed the meeting with announcements and profuse "thank-yous."

* * * * *

Following the "meeting," Norman Miller accompanied Edom to his home nearby. They shared a meal and discussed Edom's "gift."

Edom confessed that his call from the Almighty was probably not as strong as that visited on two other practitioners—Chikanga of Malawi and another Tanzanian, Nguvumal. Nevertheless, he said he wanted to keep his following and hoped it would expand. "There is a need for my work," Edom argued. Quietly he hinted that someday his following might be large enough for him to have political influence. "Then," he mused, "perhaps the old days can return, and I can do my work with the government's help."

The reference was to earlier events. Edom had been witch-finding since about 1954. But the authority of Edom and others like him was increasingly challenged. Nevertheless, the government administrator in Rungwe permitted Edom to "work." Following an investigation, Edom was described as follows in a District Commissioner's report:

> [Edom Mwasanguti] is keen on witch-hunting...recent activities suggest a considerable lack of balance [such as his reported] (discussion with God at 11:30 A.M., and discussion with [the dead] King George VI).

> His reputation is high...and can quickly evoke popular response. It is not certain how far the work is now voluntary as he has become a private practitioner.

In December 1962, the District Council ordered Edom to stop practicing. It accepted the responsibility for investigating complaints and initiating prosecution. By popular request, however, Edom continued to witch-hunt.

The Tanganyikan vice president became involved. Edom traveled 550 miles to the capital in Dar es Salaam. There for over a month in 1963, he argued and reargued his case before the government. Following a meeting with Edom, the vice president telegraphed this message to the District Commissioner in the town of Mbeya:

> Interviewed [Edom] Mwasanguti...today. He should not, repeat not, be allowed to practice. If he is allowed we shall have to allow all others in Tanganyika and there shall be chaos.
>
> Signed,
>
> R. Kawawa
> Vice President

Still, Edom held out hope that the government would change its policy in his favor. Then he could return to practicing openly. He wrote long letters to people who might be helpful. He showed me one of the letters. Typewritten on mildewed paper, it described how the government had interfered with his work despite the support that local people and ten tribal chiefs gave him openly. Police officers were assigned to accompany him. Finally, he wrote, "I got annoyed and stopped the business." Yet, "the witch-doctors have increased and many people are complaining" that witch-finding services are needed.

Seated on a mat eating curried chicken with guests following the meeting, Edom seemed to realize that the hoped-for day might never come. Witch-finders, *kamchape*, could meet people's needs, but only privately and secretly as in the case of the unlawful "meeting" just held. Edom was philosophical, giving his own perspectives on change and time. "There have been many *kamchape* in these valleys," he said. "They come as they are needed. I am just one...."

"Who knows about the future?"

Poison containers taken from alleged witches.

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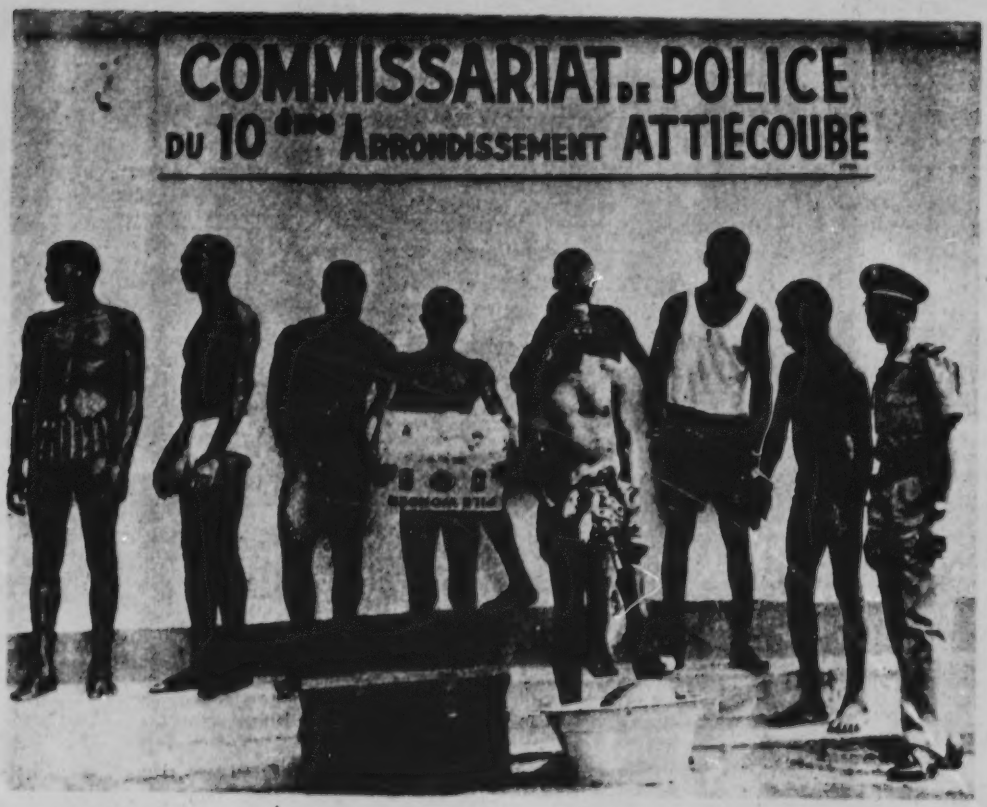
CRIME IN IVORY COAST, WEST AFRICA



A gang of thieves with their loot at an Abidjan police station.

Crime and the need to provide treatment for criminals followed the rapid growth of cities in Africa and elsewhere. Responsibility for coping with criminal activity passed from the hands of colonial officials into those of police authorities in the new states.

The Ivory Coast, a West African nation of more than 4,000,000 people, gained independence from France in 1960. It is one of the more progressive nations in dealing with crime. Under the enlightened leadership of President Félix Houphouët-Boigny and associates, an efficient police department has been established. Modern scientific procedures for detecting and preventing crime have been introduced. The nation's penal code has been revised to make it more responsive to the social circumstances of the country and to the mores of its people.

In most former French colonies south of the Sahara, systems of justice today are essentially the same as during colonialism. The emphasis is on punishment rather than rehabilitation.

The Incidence of Crime in the Ivory Coast

Theft is by far the most frequently committed crime in the Ivory Coast. More than half of the recorded crime is of this type. Most of the thievery takes place within the African community. It involves the stealing of personal possessions such as bicycles, clothing, radios, and modest sums of money. Although the European residents would seem to provide a more inviting target, they are better protected and less frequently robbed. Their houses are securely locked and guarded either by servants or watchdogs.

A woman registering a complaint against a group of young men.

The second most important crime is fraud. It includes swindling, embezzlement, breach of trust, and the falsification of documents.

Ranking third are sexual offenses, including rape. In the Ivory Coast, as in many African countries, the age at which youngsters, especially girls, begin having sexual relations is generally younger than in European society. That the government takes this into consideration is reflected in the facts that a charge of statutory rape must be supported by a medical certificate. Such an accusation cannot be maintained if intercourse with the accused has occurred on more than one occasion without being reported. Counterfeiting and traffic in drugs more often involve non-Ivoiriens. The police have a good record in suppressing these activities. They are not considered serious problems.

While there is a certain amount of organized crime in prostitution and in the drug traffic, Ivoirien police officials keep in close contact with the international police, INTERPOL and the police departments in France. They are well informed, in advance, of the arrival of undesirables.

As crime increases, so does the police capability for dealing with it. Policemen are better trained. Investigative procedures are effective. Moreover, the crime increase is not alarming.

Most of the crimes are committed by men. Women are usually involved in theft and various kinds of fraud. Although they are sometimes the *cause* of homicide, women rarely commit it themselves. Women are almost never involved in trafficking in counterfeit money and drugs in Ivory Coast. Minors of either sex, persons under eighteen, are involved mainly in theft, fraud, and sexual offense.

The largest single group of people in jails or prisons are not Ivoirien at all. Most detainees are immigrants from Upper Volta, held on charges of petty theft. Away from home and the constraints of a watchful family, and perhaps frustrated by failure to find work, they are tempted to commit crimes.

Bank holdups, gang warfare, and train robberies are rare in Africa. Three factors seem to be

involved: (1) the absence of European criminal elements in the African states; (2) the difficulty involved in escaping from the scene of a crime; and (3) the greater likelihood of detection and capture.

Most African capital cities have only one or two exit routes. These can be quickly blocked by police once they have been alerted. Executing a successful getaway through Abidjan's traffic would be a major task. The number of passengers passing through airports and seaports is small enough so these exits are easily controlled.

African cities generally have all the sociological problems which often produce juvenile gangs and wars between competing groups. These are general poverty, unemployment, fragmentation into ethnic groups, poor housing conditions, limited educational opportunities, etc. Yet there is a minimum of this type of destructive behavior. There are reasons. The disciplining of African children is regarded as a responsibility of the entire community, not just of parents. This means that anyone, anywhere, can take it upon himself to reprimand or even punish an African child who is doing wrong. And since poverty is the general state rather than the exception, people are either unaware or do not view their social condition as unfortunate or harsh. Because most African youths do not see themselves as unjustly deprived, they do not tend toward antisocial acts.

The Criminal in the Hands of the Mob

Most criminals in Africa are not apprehended by the police. They are caught by the alert public. A thief who has the misfortune of being caught in the act and then falling into the hands of a mob has a tough time of it. Few crimes so outrage the public as theft. In African society, where most people are poor and have to work very hard and long to acquire even a few possessions, theft is looked upon as the most odious of crimes.

The public shows neither compassion nor mercy toward a thief. He is surrounded, seized, and led off to the police station to the rhythmic chanting of "Thief! Thief!" "*Vo-leur! Vo-leur!*" His torment begins along the way. For every bystander, however unconnected with the incident, feels personally involved. This general feeling of empathy with the victim of the theft gives the public license to vent its wrath on the accused. People surge around the thief, shout insults, rush up to strike and hurl garbage at him. Generally a thief makes no effort to defend himself against such attacks. Any effort to do so would be futile and might further enrage the mob.

The Criminal at the Police Station

Finally delivered to the police station by the angry mob, the thief probably has a feeling of relief. Here again, he encounters a climate just as hostile. For persons caught in the act of committing a crime, there is a presumption of guilt. The accused is treated as guilty if the evidence warrants. Stripped down to undershorts, photographed, fingerprinted, and entered on the police records, he is then led into an inspector's office and subjected to questioning. Any resistance invites a blow from the investigating officer. Such inquiries tend to lead to a prompt confession.

Protections for the accused which are taken for granted in Western countries simply do not exist here. If they do, they are not invoked by either the Police or the accused.

In the entire Ivory Coast there are only around two dozen attorneys engaged in private practice. Most of them have their hands full with civil suits of various kinds. An African accused of a crime and taken to the police station would not dream of requesting the counsel of an attorney before agreeing to answer questions by the police. It simply would not occur. Certainly the police would not suggest that anyone else be brought into the affair.

The Criminal in Court

Under the French and Ivoirien systems of law, offenses are classified in three categories. These depend on the degree of seriousness. (1) *Crimes*, felonies include the most serious offenses: murder, manslaughter, rape, and burglary. A convicted criminal may be sentenced to a term of imprisonment of at least five years; (2) *Délits*, misdemeanors are less serious offenses than those in the first category. Still they bring imprisonment from one month to five years. Such offenses in the Ivory coast include theft, fraud, embezzlement, breach of trust, and falsification of documents. (3) *Contraventions* include the less serious infractions of the law. They consist mostly of traffic violations.

Once a complaint is lodged with the police, depositions are taken and it is sent to the office of the

Procureur de la Republique, States Attorney. The Procureur decides in which of the three categories the offense belongs and then sends the case to the appropriate judge. The accused is formally arraigned and ordered to face the accuser and answer the charges.

Most criminal offenses which are tried before a tribunal in the Ivory Coast involve *délits* rather than *crimes* and are dealt with by lower courts. Persons caught in the act of a crime are generally judged within fifteen days of their apprehension.

Two categories of offenders are automatically assigned defense attorneys: minors and persons indicted by the Court d'Assises. Persons arraigned before the Tribunal Correctionnel do not have this right. They are free to plead their own defense before the court s magistrate. One who pleads guilty and requests the mercy of the court is not given a less severe punishment—rather the opposite. Ivoirien judges reason that an innocent person would never falsely admit guilt to a crime. It therefore follows that when a person confesses to having committed the offense as charged, that person should be made to feel the full weight of the law.

Once a bill of indictment has been delivered by the Court d'Assises, the individual may apply for provisional liberty under bail. Few persons avail themselves of this right. Some are simply ignorant of their rights. Others are unable to raise the money to post bond.

If the judge convicts the accused an appeal may be filed immediately. In the Ivory Coast there is only one Court of Appeals. It is in Abidjan and it meets for two to three weeks twice a year. This means that delays of from six months to one year are not uncommon before an appeal may come up for review by the court. Pending the hearing of an appeal, the convicted individual is, of course, kept in prison. One may, however, request a transfer to Abidjan's civil prison while awaiting the next session of the Court of Appeals.

The severity of punishment in the Ivory Coast depends on the seriousness of the crime. It is a reflection of contemporary African values that crimes involving theft or the abuse of property seem to be punished more severely than those involving loss of life. In principle the courts are permitted to inflict sentences of five to twenty years for murder, and from one to five years for theft. One finds, on examining local press reports, that the courts are much more likely to consider extenuating circumstances in the loss of life crimes than in the property crimes. It is not uncommon for sentences of twelve months or more imprisonment to be given for theft of such relatively minor things as school documents or a carton of cigarettes. A murderer, on the other hand, often receives a sentence of only five or six years in prison.

One of the reasons for the relatively light sentences for felonies such as murder is that they are tried before the Court d'Assises. It is both judge and jury. Here the accused has access to an attorney. And African juries, like American and European juries, may be swayed by the eloquence of the defense. Moreover, African juries often feel a strong sense of identification with and compassion for the accused. They are not inclined to recommend maximum punishment for those they convict.

The Ivory Coast, like many other African states, has a death penalty—on occasion it has even been inflicted *in absentia* on persons who have fled the country. But it has never been actually carried out.

In recent years Ivoirien judges have become increasingly severe in penalizing crimes connected with witchcraft and sorcery. No crime is more likely to bring down the full wrath of the court than poisoning. Government leaders and judges alike feel that if the country is truly to be modernized, then such ancient practices must be done away with and examples made of those who commit them.

New Nationhood

FORMALLY granting independence to what will become the new nation of Guinea-Bissau on Sept. 10 is a shrewd move by the Portuguese government.

Since General Spinola seized power in last April's Lisbon coup, he has made it quite clear that he was determined to end the 13-year rebellions in all three of Portugal's African colonies, by granting independence if that was the only way.

Setting free the smallest of the three overseas territories makes good his pledge. It also should warm the atmosphere of the ongoing talks concerning the future of the two big ones, Angola and Mozambique. Portugal would like to continue benefitting from their rich natural resources.

* * *

Meanwhile there is heartening evidence of returning peace. Fighting has disappeared in all but two small localities. Elsewhere tension has been reduced to the point where Portuguese soldiers and the African national guerrillas they were so recently fighting are cooperating in police duties and in removing land mines along rural dirt roads. In several areas the white population seems to be doing its best to be friendly with the guerrillas. They invite them to dinner. In one town they actually chauffeured a group of guerrillas to what was described as a "heroes' reception."

Much of this can be perhaps put down to an effort by the settlers to ingratiate themselves with the Africans who may very soon be the official government. Yet there are hopeful signs that the Africans too are prepared to let bygones be bygones. In Mozambique, they have stopped fighting in all districts where there is a considerable white settlement, apparently as a gesture of goodwill, a token to show that there will still be a place in Mozambique for the 200,000 white minority in a total population of some 7,500,000.

* * *

Something the Lisbon government will have to be wary of is declining morale in the overseas Portuguese army. In one isolated place, nationalists took advantage of the reduced tension to trick troops into surrendering, and reports say each day the situation continues without any kind of official document being signed the soldiers become more apprehensive.

Now that General Spinola has found the means to grant Guinea-Bissau its freedom, perhaps the next smart move would be to at least draw up an official ceasefire with the former enemies who now seem so friendly.

31 August 1974
THE TELEGRAPH-JOURNAL
Saint John, New Brunswick, Canada

145

WHAT IS IT LIKE TO BE IN AFRICA?

Where are the hottest places in Africa?

Where are they in relation to the equator?

Where is the greatest seasonal variation in high and low temperatures?

Where do you expect to find deserts? Jungles? Savanna and plains?

Where does it get cold?

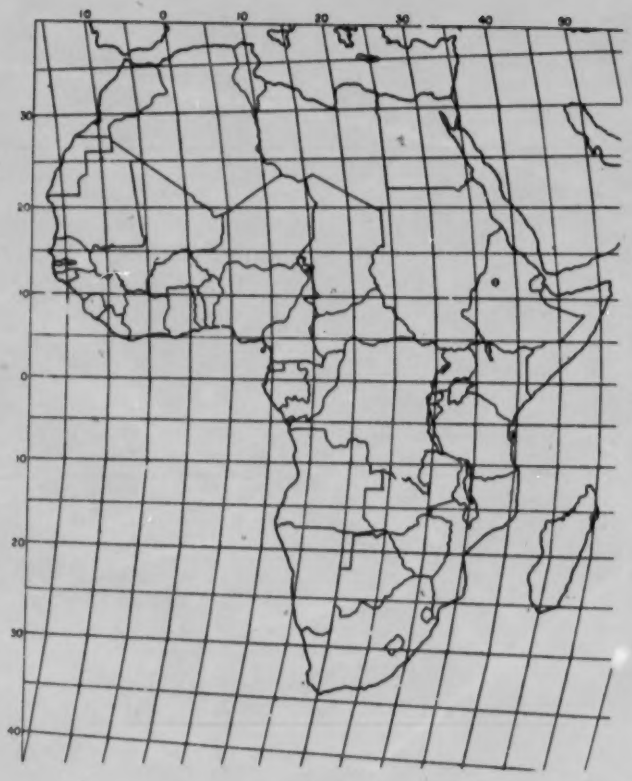
What effect does altitude have on temperature?

What effect does temperature have on vegetation?

What effect does rainfall have on vegetation?

What effect do altitude, temperature, and rainfall have on vegetation?

What effect do altitude, temperature, and rainfall have on settlement?



Record your ideas about Africa's climate and vegetation. Then turn to the next pages. Compare the maps on climate and vegetation. What do they suggest about temperatures? Rainfall? Settlement patterns?

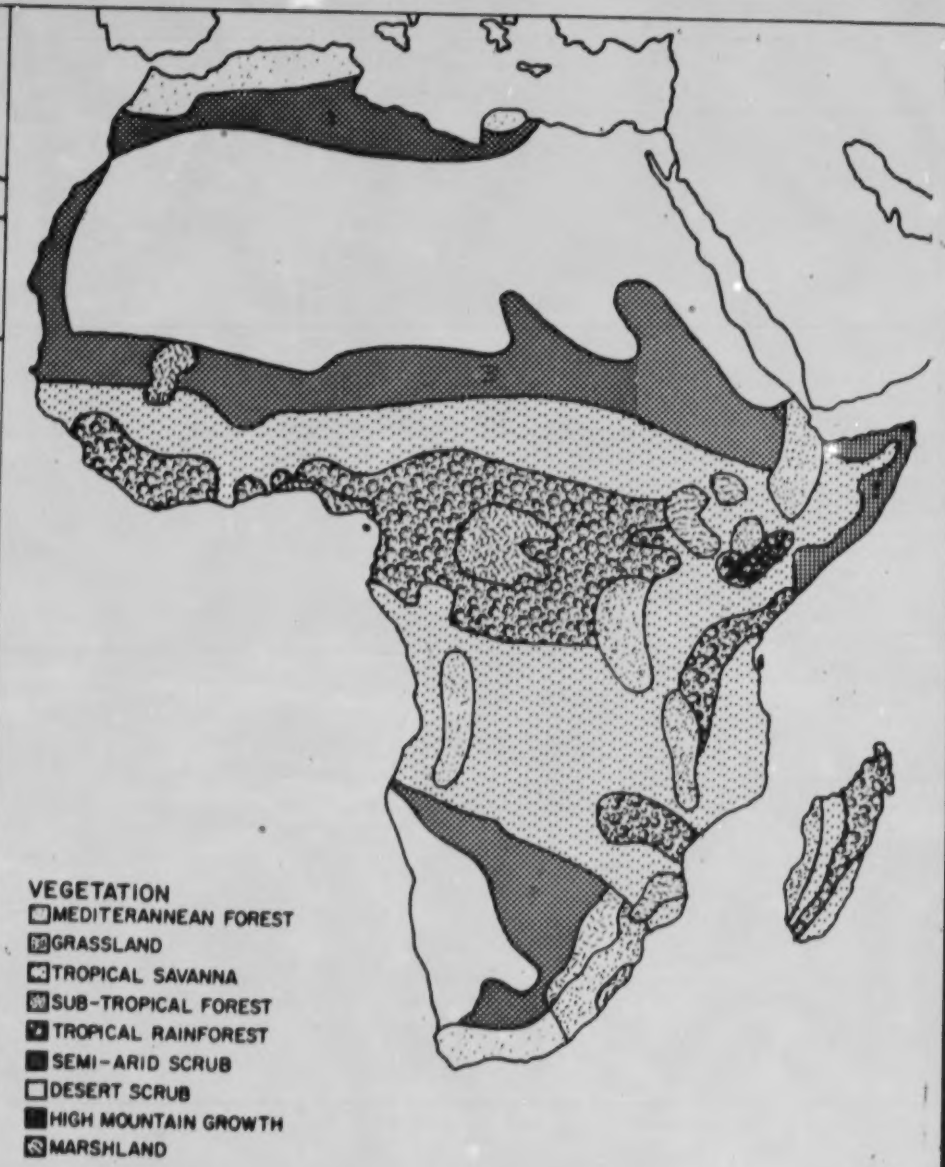
Do you wish to revise any of your answers to the questions above? Why?

Look at page 144. Consider the data on average climatic conditions in some African cities. After you complete the questions and decide where you would like to live, look at page 145. Where do people live in Africa?

Continue through the remaining pages. Consider each question, accumulating information from the maps as you proceed.

CLIMATE
WARM TEMPERATE
STEPPE (semi arid)
DESERT (arid)
TROPICAL CONTINENTAL
TROPICAL MARINE
RAINFOREST
MOUNTAIN

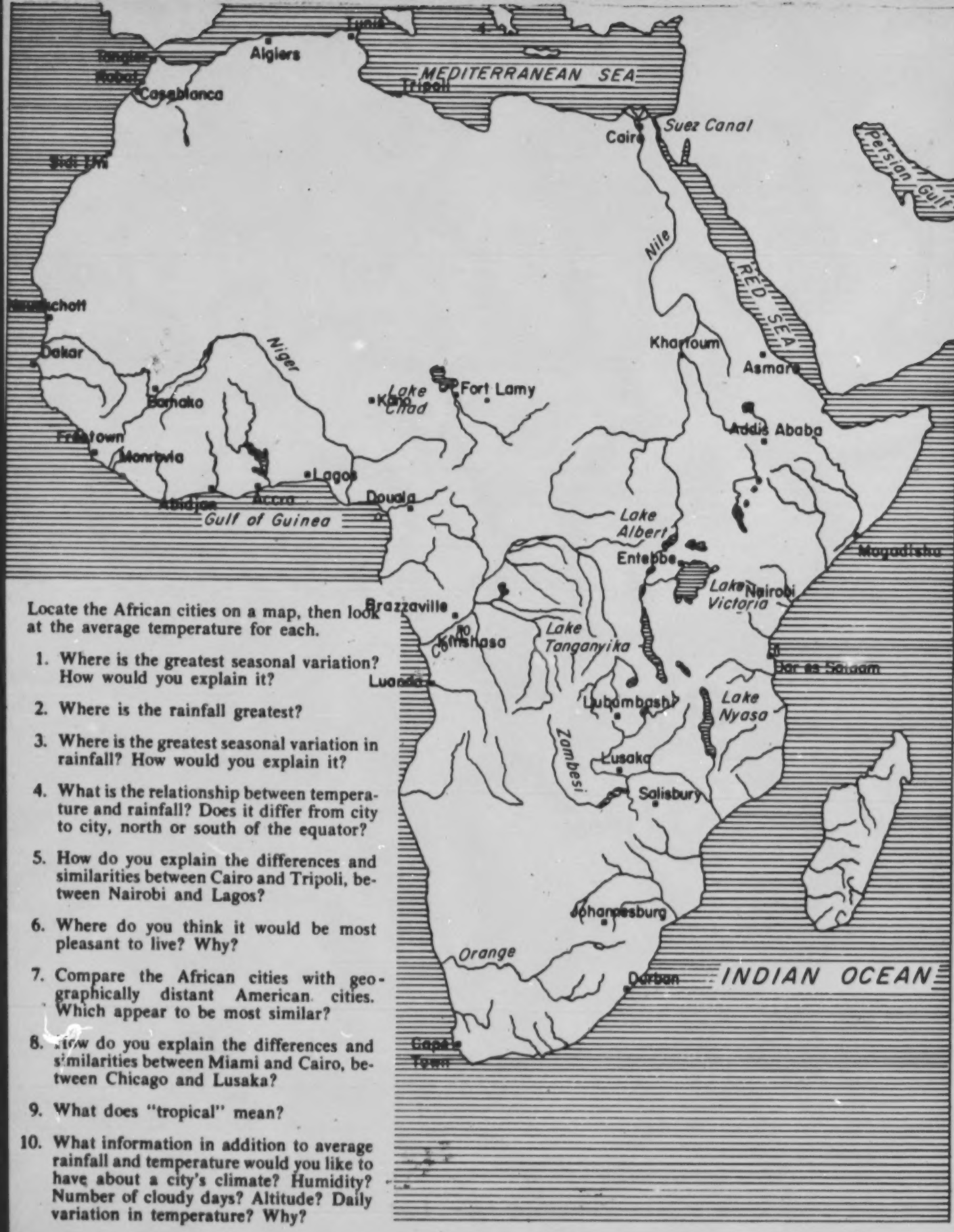
147


VEGETATION
MEDITERANNEAN FOREST
GRASSLAND
TROPICAL SAVANNA
SUB-TROPICAL FOREST
TROPICAL RAINFOREST
SEMI-ARID SCRUB
DESERT SCRUB
HIGH MOUNTAIN GROWTH
MARSHLAND

148

AVERAGE CLIMATIC CONDITIONS

	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D	
ACCRA	80	82	82	82	82	79	77	75	77	79	82	82	temperature
	0.6	1.5	2.2	3.0	4.9	7.6	2.0	0.6	1.5	2.3	1.4	0.9	rainfall
CAIRO	56	58	63	69	77	81	84	83	79	75	68	59	
	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0	0	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.2	
DAR ES SALAAM	81	81	81	80	78	75	74	74	74	76	78	80	
	2.8	3.2	5.6	11.8	7.4	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.4	2.3	2.7	3.1	
ENTEBBE	72	72	72	72	71	70	69	69	70	71	71	71	
	2.6	3.6	6.3	10.1	9.6	4.8	3.0	2.9	2.9	3.7	5.2	4.6	
JOHANNESBURG	67	66	63	60	54	49	49	53	59	64	65	66	
	6.2	5.2	4.4	1.7	0.7	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.9	2.6	5.0	5.4	
KHARTOUM	74	75	81	87	92	92	88	86	89	89	82	75	
	0	0	0.05	0.05	0.1	0.3	2.0	2.9	0.7	0.2	0.05	0	
LAGOS	80	82	82	81	80	77	76	76	77	78	80	80	
	1.1	2.1	3.7	5.7	10.5	18.7	10.7	2.8	5.3	7.8	2.6	0.8	
LUSAKA	70	71	70	69	64	61	61	65	71	76	74	71	
	9.1	7.5	5.6	0.7	0.1	0.05	0.05	0	0.05	0.4	3.6	5.9	
NAIROBI	68	70	70	69	67	64	62	63	67	68	68	67	
	1.5	2.1	5.3	7.7	5.2	1.6	0.6	1.0	0.9	1.9	4.0	2.5	
TRIPOLI	53	55	59	67	72	79	82	79	82	74	64	55	
	3.1	1.8	1.1	0.4	0.2	0.1	0	0	0.4	1.6	2.6	3.7	
CHICAGO	25	27	37	48	59	69	74	72	65	54	39	28	
	1.8	1.4	2.9	2.8	3.7	4.1	2.7	3.2	3.2	3.2	2.6	1.9	
LONDON	40	40	43	48	54	60	64	63	58	57	44	41	
	1.8	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.7	2.2	2.2	2.2	1.9	2.7	2.2	2.3	
MIAMI	67	68	71	73	77	80	82	82	81	77	72	69	
	2.8	2.1	2.5	3.2	6.8	7.0	6.1	6.3	8.0	9.2	2.8	2.0	
NEW YORK	32	31	39	49	60	69	74	73	67	56	45	34	
	3.6	3.5	3.8	3.3	3.3	3.4	4.3	4.3	3.5	3.4	3.2	3.3	
SAN FRANCISCO	48	51	52	54	56	59	60	61	62	59	54	49	
	3.5	3.4	2.4	1.3	0.4	0.1	0.05	0,05	0.1	0.9	1.6	3.6	



Locate the African cities on a map, then look at the average temperature for each.

1. Where is the greatest seasonal variation? How would you explain it?
2. Where is the rainfall greatest?
3. Where is the greatest seasonal variation in rainfall? How would you explain it?
4. What is the relationship between temperature and rainfall? Does it differ from city to city, north or south of the equator?
5. How do you explain the differences and similarities between Cairo and Tripoli, between Nairobi and Lagos?
6. Where do you think it would be most pleasant to live? Why?
7. Compare the African cities with geographically distant American cities. Which appear to be most similar?
8. How do you explain the differences and similarities between Miami and Cairo, between Chicago and Lusaka?
9. What does "tropical" mean?
10. What information in addition to average rainfall and temperature would you like to have about a city's climate? Humidity? Number of cloudy days? Altitude? Daily variation in temperature? Why?

WHERE DO AFRICANS LIVE?

Where would you suppose most Africans live?

In cities?
In villages?
In migrating tribes?

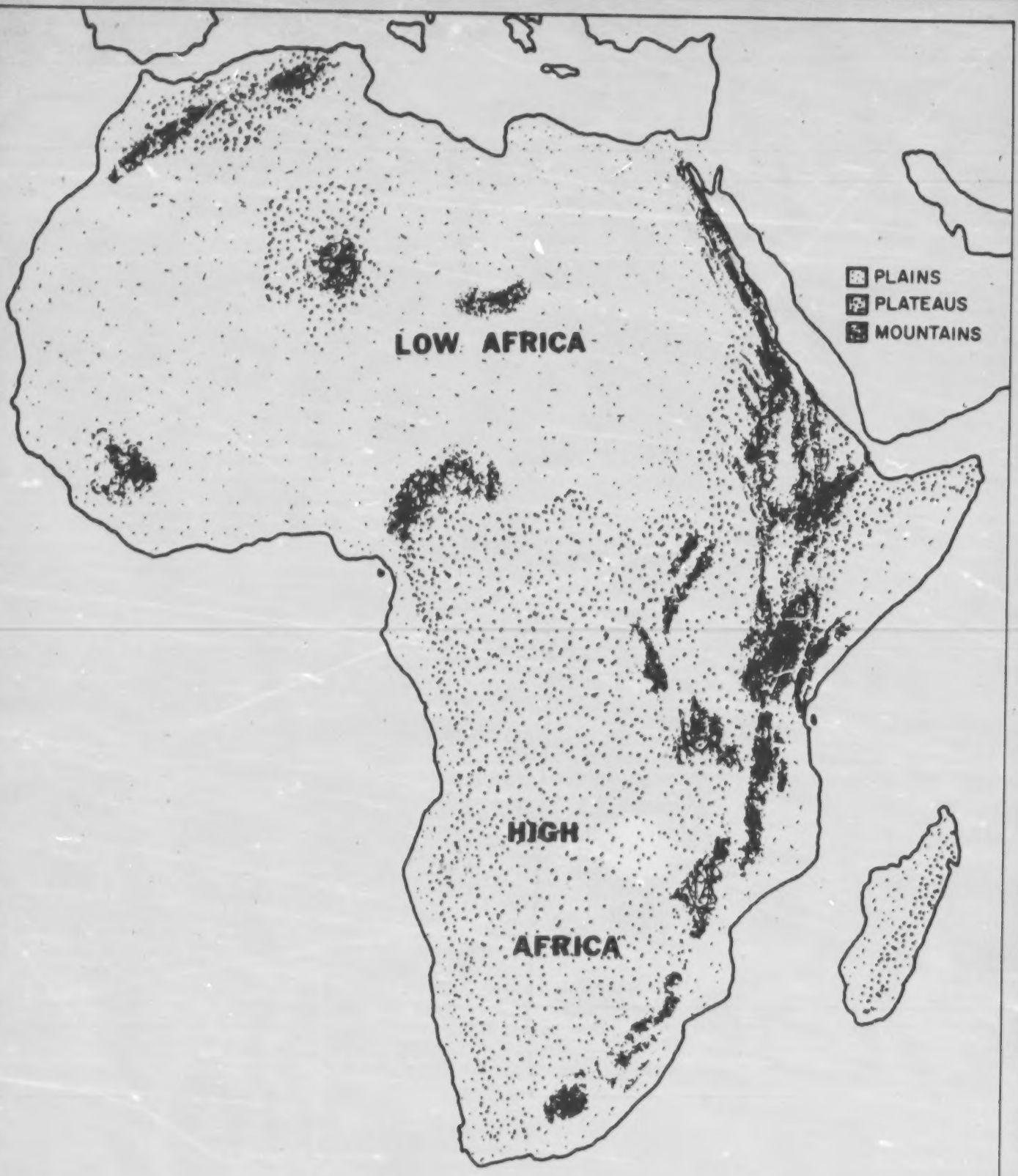
What combinations of geographic conditions would support the greatest number of people per square mile?

Highlands?
Lowlands?
Coastal?
Inland?
Hot-wet climates?
Hot-dry climates?
Cool-wet climates?
Cool-dry climates?

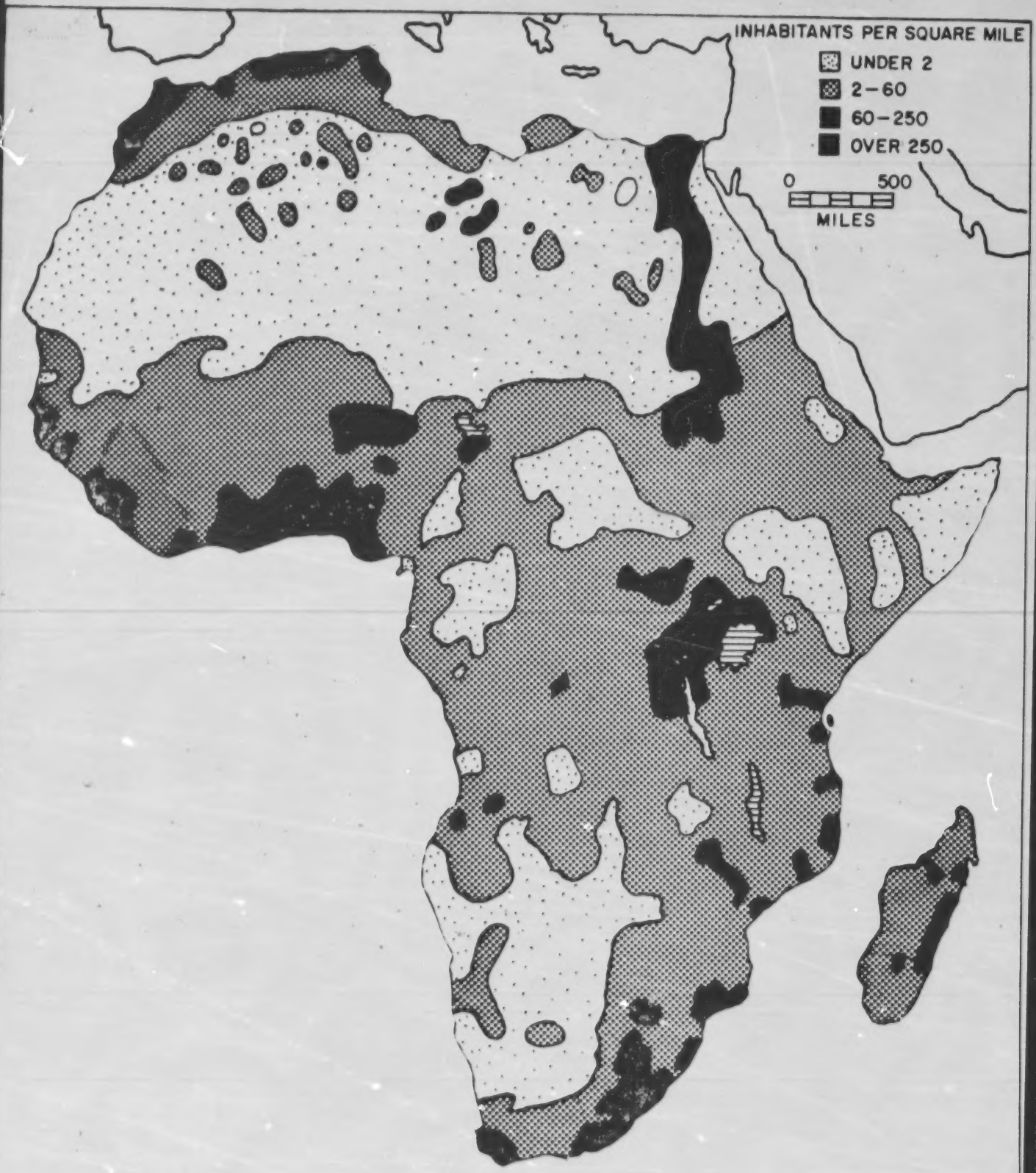
Where are the largest concentrations of population? Are they associated with countries ruled by Black African majorities, White African minorities, or Africans of Arab descent?

Are they associated with agricultural or industrial economics? What languages do the people speak?

Your views can be discussed and recorded. Keep these in mind when you analyze photographs throughout this Student Text.

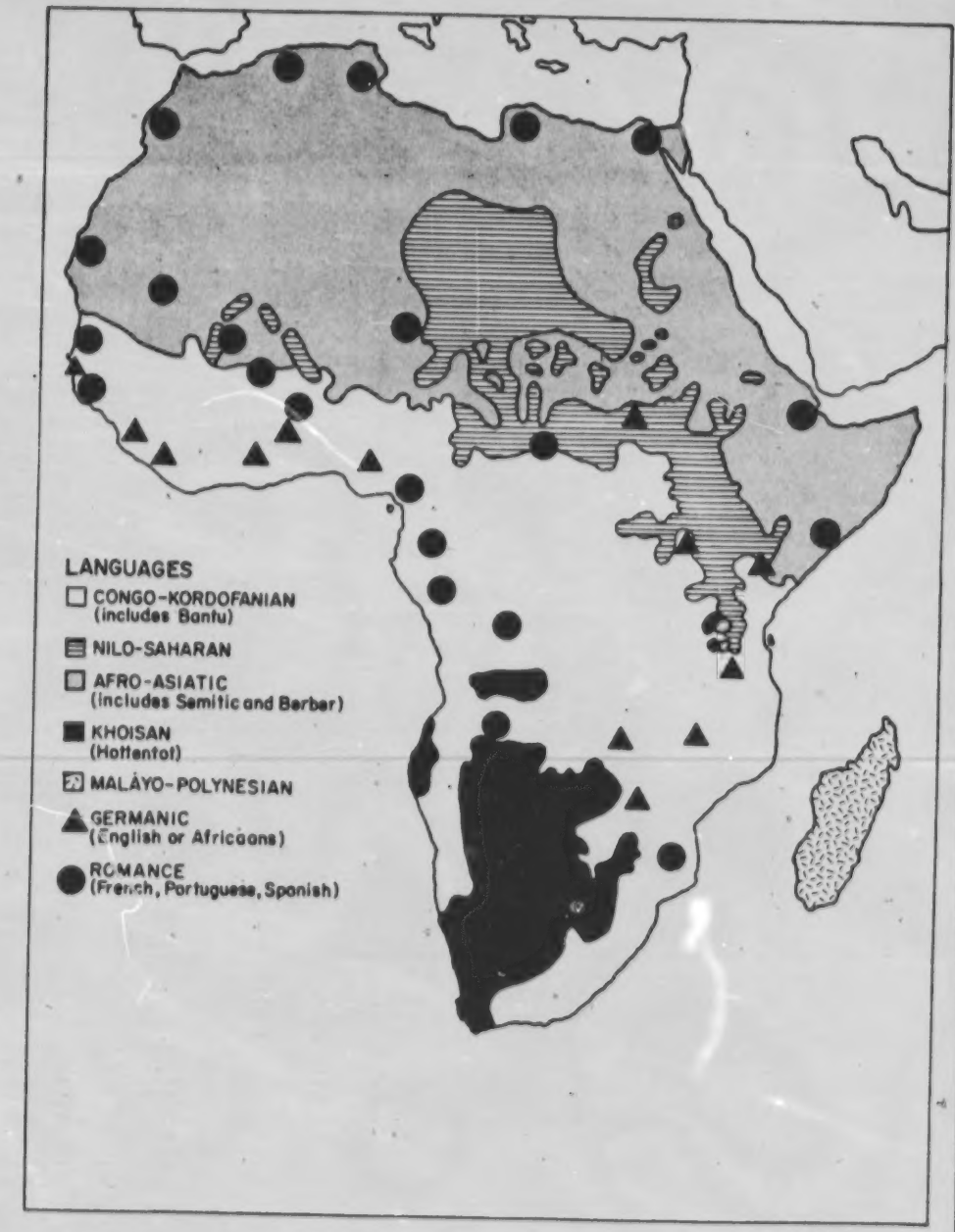


152


INHABITANTS PER SQUARE MILE
UNDER 2
2–60
60–250
OVER 250
0
500
MILES

WHO RULES ?
BLACK AFRICANS*
WHITE MINORITIES
NORTH AFRICANS
* including Ethiopians and Malagasy

151


LANGUAGES
CONGO-KORDOFANIAN (includes Bantu)
NILO-SAHARAN
AFRO-ASIATIC (includes Semitic and Berber)
KHOISAN (Hottentot)
MALAYO-POLYNESIAN
GERMANIC (English or Africaans)
ROMANCE (French, Portuguese, Spanish)

153

DROUGHT: A SIMULATION OF HUMAN EXPERIENCE UNDER DROUGHT CONDITIONS IN THE SAHEL

Introduction:

Since 1968 drought has affected the region in West Africa known as the Sahel. The drought is centered in six nations, former French colonies: Mauritania, Mali, Chad, Niger, Senegal, and Upper Volta. It also extends south into northern Ghana and Nigeria and east to the Sudan and Ethiopia.

This simulation allows a group of four to role-play people involved in the Sahel's drama. You are recreating the drama of human beings trying to cope with natural catastrophe.

Natural catastrophes--floods, drought, epidemic disease--can occur in any part of the world. And, except for earthquakes, for example, such catastrophes are seldom a consequence of natural factors alone.

In the Sahel, as is so often the case elsewhere, human beings have unconsciously contributed to catastrophe. Poorly planned agricultural development, increase in population both of humans and animals--these too are factors in the present catastrophe. You may speculate on what the human actors in this drama might have done differently, or might do now to prevent another catastrophe in the future.

Instructions:

Four players, each represent one of the following:

Nomad
Farmer
Government Official
International Official

Each player-actor receives a scenario, a series of scenes describing events associated with human life--and drought.

The course of action over time is represented by placing a marker, any small object, representing each player on the game board. Survival is each player's goal.

Players take turns reading, scene by scene, from their scenario. When all players have read scene one, for example, and made the appropriate move on the board, they begin reading scene two. (You may play the roles in any order.)

When the scenario has been completed, discuss the evaluation questions.

DROUGHT SIMULATION

NOMAD SCENARIO

Scene 1

My lineage is a proud one. Generations of my family have crossed the Sahara trading gold and salt. We have always been prosperous. My camels wear silver medallions on their harnesses. The wife I will take in a few years already has fine silver jewelry and gold earrings.

I was sixteen a few days ago. I've heard that there are places where I would be considered a child. Thankfully, I am a man here, with my own herd too. I want to have many, many livestock so all my people will be proud of me. Only I will scatter the cattle when the tax collector comes from the capital. They are so easily fooled, those southerners.

This spring there has been rain in areas that I never saw green before. This land is magic. It looks dead, then the rains bring life to it overnight. There must be no other life so wonderful as my own.

[Move to Square 2 and wait]

This year we're moving toward the southern towns very slowly. Our cattle are fat on the grass. They'll bring a fine price.

Scene 2

Only a few years ago there was plenty of rain. Some places even had too much and it washed out the trails. Now there is too little. One year or even two years with little rain doesn't do too much damage. More and more people begin to suffer. Some of the young animals die. The big ones eat all the grass and the mothers don't want to feed the calves.

My family split the herd among all the male children. I had already started my own herd. Now I have twice as many cattle, goats, and camels but they are not so fat anymore. We've decided to spread out somewhat in traveling to the next oasis. That way the livestock will have a bit more to eat. We must hurry though, or the oasis will be crowded. Then we will have too little food there too. I plan to stay only a few days, then push on quickly into the farmland further south. I may even sell a few cattle if I can get a good price. And I ought to. A lot of farmers have done very well since the government helped them install mechanical water pumps and irrigate some of the land.

[Flip a coin to determine whether you move to Heads or Tails]

Scene 3

Heads

I arrived last night, further south than I've ever been. The trip was pretty bad, and two yearlings didn't make it. But everything is okay now. I've never seen so much grass. I'll let my herd fatten for a week or so, then start bargaining. No sense being in a hurry. The herd is better off here than anyplace we've been in the last six months.

This community has about a half dozen wells with diesel pumps. They have some regulations about how often the pumps are used and how much water each farmer receives. I guess that's all right if you are limited to one area like these farmers are. I wonder if one of these new deep wells with a pump might improve the situation back at the last oasis where we camped. The water supply has been irregular there my last two trips through. If my herd doesn't get enough food and water there, it's nearly impossible to make it all the way across to the next oasis.

Someone said there is a government administrator here who deals with agricultural development. Maybe he knows something about how to get a well dug and a pump installed. I'll try to talk to him while I'm here.

[Move to Square 4]

Talls

What a trip! I thought I'd lose my whole herd. There was so little grass everywhere that I had to push them all the way. Two of the best calves died, one camel, and half a dozen of the sheep and goats. I didn't even dare take the time to skin them properly. If the worms haven't gotten to the hides, I'll tan them here.

This is further south than I've ever come before. If we hadn't followed the dry riverbed, we might never have made it. Every evening when it became cool, we'd dig holes in the riverbed. A little water would seep in during the night. We'd drink first, then let the animals have a share. None got enough.

It looks good to me here but that's not what the farmers are saying. Two of their mechanical water pumps burned out last week because the water level dropped so low. The government has put a "temporary" stop on all the irrigation projects. They say people have to save every drop they can. But they're offering pretty good prices for livestock. Considering how thin my animals are, I ought to be pretty happy.

[Move to Square 4]

Scene 4

The herd got a pretty good rest. The goats are almost back to normal and so are the camels, but the sheep and cattle are pretty weak.

I didn't sell the livestock for as much as half that many brought last year. The farmer said he ought to charge me for letting the herd graze the stubble in his fields. I told him that if they didn't graze, his fields wouldn't get fertilized at all. I've heard that chemical fertilizers cost a fortune. Fortunately, we don't have to worry about such things.

My grandfather and two of my oldest cousins decided to stay in the farm community. I almost left our daughter with them. She is sickly, and she doesn't like to eat the coarse grain. But my wife didn't want to leave her. She sold one of her bracelets to buy dehydrated milk for the little girl and the baby.

I guess we're in for hard times. It would be difficult to sell any of our other ornaments or the good rugs but things may come to that. I've heard that some foreigners will pay a high price for such things. Maybe when we come back I'll find someone who will take these old coins to the capital and sell them there.

[Move to Square 5]

Scene 5

Today I am twenty-six years old. It ought to be a happy day, but instead it's miserable. The baby and the little girl both died. My wife is hardly able to walk. The camels can barely carry the tents. I think the family must split. I must leave my wife at the oasis—maybe with the boy. His hair is turning orange and his belly is swollen. People say it's because he is starving. He eats what we do but I guess it's not enough for a growing person. He'll have a better chance to survive at the oasis.

I'm taking all that remains of the herd to the first town. There I can sell them. Then I'll buy food for the family and return—if the camel lives. With food, we can all stay at the oasis.

There is no need to travel anymore. There is no grass, no water. It doesn't even help to dig in the dry stream beds. The wind has blown so much dust that you can hardly find the old water holes.

The government has set up a camp for refugees nearby. I don't want to go there. But if we can't get water and food, we'll have to. I've heard they give barely enough food to stay alive. The place probably stinks with all those people around. But we'll surely die in the desert without help.

[Flip a coin to determine whether you move to heads or tails]

Scene 6

Heads

A shipment of food and medicine arrived at noon. Each of us received a cup of grain, another of powdered milk, and a quart of pure water. "Make it last as long as you can," they say.

They are vaccinating people too. There is a medical unit to treat sick people in the camp. I feel better than I've felt in weeks.

[Flip a coin. If heads, move to Square 9. If tails, to Square 7]

Tails

The shipment of food that has been expected for over a week still hasn't arrived. Neither has the medicine. We've been getting a little meat from the animals that die. They are so thin and diseased that I wouldn't eat the stews if I weren't starving myself.

My family must have all died—I had two cousins and their families here. I haven't heard about my wife and the boy for several months. No one travels now. I share food with the people in the next tent. We've formed a new kind of family. It's terrible to be alone. So we share and help one another.

Maybe tomorrow we'll have food. They say it comes from people far away. Why should they send it to us? Maybe they won't. Why should they?

[Flip a coin. If heads, move to Square 9. If tails, to Square 7]

Scene 7 [Read this scene only if you are on Square 7]

I'm still at the camp. There is no reason to leave. My wife and son died. A government official read to us a list of the people who had died at the oasis. Now I am alone, yet people surround me and the desert surrounds us all.

One of the children in my adopted family has died. The older one is very ill. He can hardly stand upright. Mostly he sleeps. His breathing makes a noise in his chest. I try to keep flies away and protect him from the sun so he doesn't become blind. He needs help that we cannot give. Perhaps food and medicine will arrive today.

There is nothing left to eat now. All the animals are dead. There is no brush left to build a fire either. I walked around a bit hoping to find something but nothing at all is alive in this parched earth. I am too weak to go out again.

[Move to Square 8]

Scene 8

Food arrived this morning. It is not very much. But I am so weak that I can eat little.

The government official who distributed rations said they would keep a person alive for five days. He did not know when he would return with more. He seemed sorry that he could promise us nothing.

People all over the world have been donating food, he told us, but it is difficult to find trucks to carry it to the refugees. Many of the trucks are old. Driving conditions are terrible. Sand gets into the engines

and the radiators overheat. Often they aren't serviced properly and break down needlessly en route. Rains in the south washed out several roads near the capital. Engineers are working to repair them but there has been a labor dispute which delayed repairs more than a week.

A man asked to take my photograph. He says he works for a newspaper. He said photographs would make people in other places send more food. I had no reason to say no. What does a picture matter now?

[If you are hopeful, move to Square 9. If you are pessimistic, move to Square 10]

Scene 9 [Read only if you are on Square 9]

I'm at the camp and have been for almost a year. We've had good food for about six weeks. I am stronger now. There are some children, though, who look as if they will never grow straight and strong.

I listened last night to a speaker sent by the government. He spoke through a loudspeaker. It made his voice sound like the radio.

He told us we had two choices. One, we can stay in this camp. The government will continue sending food until we can return to the desert. The government will provide water until rains fill the wells. Maybe it will be one year, maybe many.

The second choice is difficult. It means leaving the desert. It is my home, the only place where I am happy. He says the government will help move to settlements in the south. We will have to talk much of the way but vehicles will aid those who falter. In the south we will live in refugee camps. They are near paved roads and can provide regular supplies of food. There will be better health facilities too.

The man spoke from his heart. He is only twenty-six, like me. He wants to help. I think he sees a better chance for people like us in the south. Maybe he is only afraid.

He says the government will eventually help us to get jobs if we go south. I might even farm for a few years and save some money. Then, when the drought is over, I can buy some animals and return to the desert. I might get rich again.

Tonight we must decide.

[Choose. Move to Square 10]

After making your individual decision, consider the following questions, discussing them with the other players.

1. How long could you live on a basic minimum of food and water?
2. What are the future prospects of the one child who is still living?
3. Events which could increase the probability and desirability of starting over in a new and good life?
4. What would you as an individual do under such circumstances?

[Now write your version of Scene 10]

DROUGHT SIMULATION

FARMER SCENARIO

Scene 1

I turned sixteen the day the spring rains began. The rains are the heaviest this area has received in many years. The first crop we planted was a total failure. The seeds just rotted in the mud. But my family is prosperous. We had plenty of seed for replanting right away. Now the fields of grain are beginning to ripen and the livestock look healthier than I've ever seen them.

Some of the farmers were not as lucky as we were. They had to apply for credit to get seeds for a second planting. The delays will cost them dearly. Production is likely to fall below average and they will be forced to borrow again next year.

The nomads haven't arrived yet. With all the rain, they are traveling slowly. The grazing is good, even at the edge of the desert. But they will come eventually. Trade should be brisk, especially for salt and cattle. I plan to sell some of my young animals this season. It looks like a good year.

[Move to Square 2 and wait]

Scene 2

A few years ago there was too much rain. Now there is too little. But we are managing quite well. The new motorized pump we put on the well allows us to irrigate a few fields. The pump cost a lot but the government guaranteed the loan. My father says that we'll make enough off the next two crops to pay for it, if the supply of water doesn't fail.

The market for our crops is getting better all the time. So many people have moved south to the capital. Even the provincial capitals are growing. I wouldn't like the city very much. It is too crowded. There is no room to grow gardens or keep animals. Of course, that is luck for us. We sell most of our surplus in the capital.

The nomads will probably arrive this week. Because it is unusually dry to the north, they will be anxious to let their herds graze the stubble in the fields. I intend to buy a few more cattle this year and fatten them up a bit. Then we'll herd them south where the market for meat is better.

[Flip a coin to determine whether you move to Heads or Tails]

Scene 3

Heads

The first nomads and their herds arrived this morning. The livestock look thin and weak. I heard many of them walking about during the night. They smell the water in our irrigated fields. Tomorrow we'll let them into the harvested fields to graze the stubble. There is a water hole there too. It is low this year but it should be adequate.

Every year the same families come here. We trade cattle and various other goods. There is an informal agreement among families for grazing rights. We make certain fields available to the nomads' herds. The manure the animals deposit enriches our fields for the next year. But this year more people and more animals have arrived. They have asked permission to graze other fields. I am worried that so many animals will damage the pastures. They've stripped the leaves from the low bushes all around the farm. In this dry weather, the plants may die.

A government official is also arriving today. He wants to inspect our irrigation system. He says that it can be a model for others. The problem is with the water pumps. So many farmers want to drill new, deep wells and install pumps. Of course, nearly everyone must borrow money from the government to pay for it.

[Move to Square 4]

Tails

The first nomads and their herds arrived this morning. They are about a week earlier than usual. Looking at the animals, it is easy to guess why. They are in pitiful shape. One of the nomads, a young man about my age, said that they found very little grass this year. Some of the young animals died before they reached our farm.

We have a problem too. Our wells are all low. In fact, the water level for this whole area is declining. We suspended irrigation for the rest of the season. We feared that the pump's motor might burn up if the water level dropped any more. The water hole out in the unirrigated pasture is also low. The nomads will be disappointed. They'll have other reasons to complain. We already let our own cattle graze some of the stubble. We have little grain stored for their survival should this drought continue.

I fear we are all in trouble. Our crops have not failed completely but yield is considerably below normal. There is little to sell to the nomads, although they are willing to pay. We are falling behind on payments for the pump and irrigation equipment. The government official who came to look at our farm was critical. He said we should be producing more after such an investment. "How can I continue to use your farm as a model?" he asked.

[Move to Square 4]

Scene 4

The nomads are like locusts this year. Usually two large "families" visit our farm during this season. But life is becoming desperate for them. Groups have been coming here from great distances. Their herds are dying. Many of the people themselves look weak and emaciated, especially the children.

The nomads want to sell a large part of their herds. But the animals are too thin to be taken to market, if they could survive the trip. And we don't have sufficient fodder for our own animals. The water supply is just as bad. The poor animals walk back and forth in the mud all day, licking the moisture from their feet. I saw a young calf die, too weak to pull his hind feet from the mud.

The dead animals are becoming an awful problem. Their decaying carcasses are a source of disease when left near the water supply. Other animals have died along the roads and block traffic.

My friend came to me with some gold coins. There were very old, he said. He had heard that people in the capital would pay high prices for such coins and also gold and silver jewelry. I promised to speak to someone from the capital to sell them on his behalf.

We have plenty of water for our personal needs. But the food supply is rapidly being depleted. Some farmers talk of a black market in grain. I will speak to the government official about this when he comes again.

Scene 5

I am twenty-six, but my thoughts keep returning to the year when I was sixteen. Life has never again seemed as good as it was that year. Then my family was prosperous. Now we are miserable. And we are few. All my children have died but two. I do not like to look at them with their thin arms and swollen bellies. It seems too much to hope for their return to health.

All the farm animals have died except one horse and one young cow. They and we cling to life. None of us can walk about very much. We long for the night to cool the air and bring a little moisture to our parched skins.

All the wells are dry. The government sent a crew to dig the best well deeper but there was no water. Now my farm looks like the desert around it. Except for the people. It has become a refugee camp. The government relief officials use my barn, my house, and the shed for their offices. From these rooms they direct the rationing of food and water to the nomads and many farm families who have gathered here.

There is too little food and water. Many people complain that the government, and the soldiers they send, show favoritism in distributing the rations. The farmers claim that the nomads receive too much. The nomads say the farmers are hoarding grain at home. But most people in the camp help one another at least to stay alive.

[Flip a coin to determine whether you move to Heads or Tails]

Scene 6

Heads

Food arrived today. Everyone is rejoicing silently for we have little strength for celebration. I've been waiting in this line since I heard the trucks arrive at dawn. Each person will receive one cup of grain, another of powdered milk, and a container of drinking water.

[Go to Square 7]

Tails

All night I listened for the sound of engines. There were none, neither truck nor airplane. We have waited like this for many nights and many days. The shipment of food has been promised but it has not arrived. When will it come? I have nothing else to think about. My family have almost all died. Even my horse died.

[Go to Square 7]

Scene 7 [Read only if you are on Square 7]

Another of my children died. Like the others, it died quietly, exhausted by starvation, too weak even to cry. There is no sadness in its death. It is more awful to live like this than to die.

I wanted to bury my child among its people, near my ancestral home. But the government official says this cannot be. My house is now his office. The barn shelters what few relief supplies remain. Food distribution—when there is food to distribute—is centered there. Thus my child must be buried like all the others who have died.

I have one calf remaining. She looks healthy, considering these awful times. The calf's mother continued to allow it to nurse until almost the day she herself died. The calf is all I have left of the wealth I and my family once had. Now I must sell her too so that perhaps we and the baby may survive.

[Move to Square 8]

Scene 8 [Read only if you are on Square 8]

We ate meat yesterday. It was the last food we had. This morning new food supplies arrived. I know I am starving but I don't feel hungry. I don't even feel excitement or hope. But my child needs help. It

seems stronger since drinking the broth from the meat. Now I will wait in line to get milk. We have nothing to do but wait.

The trucks that brought the milk also brought a doctor and some other people. The doctor is a foreigner. So are the others. Most of them have cameras. They are journalists who say that the photographs they make and the words they write will cause other foreigners to help us. It seems very strange but what difference does it make to me.

The doctor handled the child gently and even made it smile once. It was the first smile in many days. Then a medical assistant injected the child with fluid. It entered the body very slowly. He said the child was dehydrated and needed this kind of treatment before it could eat properly. By nightfall, he said, all of you will be eating.

[If you are hopeful, move to Square 9. If you are not, move to Square 10]

Scene 9

A government official is standing now on the roof of my old house. Everyone who can walk is gathered around to listen. He is speaking through a small machine that makes his voice very loud. Almost as soon as he spoke I recognized his voice from happier days. He was the man who advised us on the installation of our irrigation system. And it was he who worried about our loan repayment when the drought first began.

The government official has given us a choice. We must decide whether to stay here, and risk starvation should the supply of food fail to arrive, or to migrate to camps closer to the capital. In either case there is risk. Disease and sickness are common in the cities too, but medical treatment is more accessible. Also, if I take my child and leave this place, our lives may never be the same again. He says we will be resettled on new farmlands or in the city. There will be jobs there in factories. Or I can work in a shop, perhaps selling food.

If I stay here, it is a risk. If I go south, it is a new land, without family, and a new life. We might die there too, if the drought does not end.

[Make your decision, then after considering the following questions, write your own Scene 10]

[Decide. Move to Square 10]

After making your individual decision, consider the following questions, discussing them with the other players.

Having made your decision, estimate and describe to other players:

1. What you think are the survival advantages of a farmer compared with a nomad?
2. Why you made the decision to stay or leave?
3. Events likely to be obstacles working against your child's future.
4. What would you as an individual do under such circumstances?

[Now write your version of Scene 10]

DROUGHT SIMULATION

GOVERNMENT OFFICIAL SCENARIO

Scene 1

My family has been prosperous for many generations. We have large landholdings spread about the countryside. Several serve as sites for the government's model farm demonstrations.

My father and uncles and I--all of us have invested also in new light industry in the capital. We have a long tradition of leadership in the country's political and economic life. And in educational institutions as well. All the males in my family have studied for at least a short time in Europe. I am sixteen now and looking forward to my first trip to Europe--but, of course, I must first pass my examinations here.

Just last night my father spoke anxiously about the weather. We've had unusually heavy rains. He even spoke of flying to Switzerland to negotiate a bank loan. He says many small farmers will wish to borrow to buy seeds for replanting. He expects trade to be depressed generally. The nomads, for example, adjusted their route to the new conditions. Usually they come further south to trade. This year the farmers have so little, the nomads may not come at all.

(Move to Square 2 and wait)

Scene 2

A few years ago there was too much rain. Now there is too little.

The government's program for installing motor-driven water pumps is behind schedule. So is the drilling operation for opening new, deep wells. More farmers want wells now than could be drilled in ten years. Problems seem to plague our every step. The drilling equipment itself breaks down regularly. One time it is sand in the motor, another time it is lack of oil. Often it is the inexperience of the workers.

Because of these problems the irrigation scheme is delayed too. The farmers have been unable to borrow enough money to finance their portion of the work. And not only are the expenses rising but less water is available. Even the deepest wells have less water. Some say that the water table in the entire region is dropping. Some fear that we may have another severe drought. That would mean disaster for the people and animals. Livestock herds are larger than at any time in the past. And although agricultural production is up, food is still not plentiful. Our country is more prosperous than it was as a colony, but we are far from achieving our development goals. If a drought really does occur, it will take us years to recover.

(Flip a coin to determine whether to move to Heads or Tails)

Scene 3

Heads

I was just assigned to this provincial capital. It's a bit of a comedown in some ways. After all, I've spent most of my life in the nation's capital. This is the administrative center for a rural district, but I'd hardly call it a city. Still it is relaxing. Maybe I can forget some of the political tensions that are beginning to bother people back in the capital. I have a lot of work to do, yet this seems almost like a vacation. I'm staying in a good house, courtesy of a prosperous farmer.

Actually, my host's farm is one of the reasons I was sent here. It is one of the few in this region which is doing well. Although there has been less rain this spring than usual, irrigation has made a difference. He even has good pastureland, fertile and green. Beyond the watered areas, however, the earth is parched. It used to be scrub--reasonable grazing especially for goats. Now it looks like desert.

The first of this season's nomads arrived in camp yesterday. Their animals are lean but the herds are large. Most of the animals would fatten quickly on good pasture. This unusually large number of animals, however, may exhaust the grazing too quickly.

Several of the nomads have expressed interest in the water pumps. There is a good deal of grumbling. One guy complained that the government only wants his tax money. It never provides him with anything. Nor does it provide for his way of life. "Why not install such wells at the oases," he demanded. Indeed, why not?

(Move to Square 4)

Tails

Wow, it's hot and dusty. At least I can escape into an air-conditioned office. Living on a farm must be unbearable, cramped in small, dark, dusty huts.

There are crop failures in all the northern regions this year. The minister of agriculture is blaming us. "All this money and effort," he says, "and what can you show for it?" Without rain, what good are our programs? The skies are gray but laden with dust, not rain.

My own family's farm lands are suffering. We created a number of new fields and built irrigation canals to water them. Now there is too little water even for the animals. There is nothing for the fields.

Several groups of nomads have arrived. A few years ago they acted like they owned the world. Look at them now. Thin. Their animals are starving. Those coming in later will be in worse condition.

Government officials say that many of the nomads are migrating south to the towns. Aerial surveys indicate less water at the oases. Several of them actually have shrunk as the ground water retreated. Yet hundreds of people are remaining in camps around the oases. It is as though the desert is expanding around them, trapping the people in progressively smaller areas.

No one is interested in my demonstrations of agricultural implements. They only want loans--and rain. "Do something to increase the supply of water," they demand. What can we do? The government itself is shaky these days. What can one say publicly?

(Move to Square 4)

Scene 4

The annual report for my department was submitted today. It seems to contain only bad news. We tried for some time to avoid the obvious. A drought is affecting the whole country and neighboring states as well. We will not be alone in our suffering but is that a comfort? Perhaps it will mean more attention from the outside world, from Europe and America. Maybe even the oil-rich Arab states will help us now.

The President announced on the state radio network that he had asked for international aid in this crisis. He reassured the people that the dilemma is prompted by natural calamities, not malice. Nor is it a result of some failure on our part. No, it is only the weather. And maybe the animals too. We have many more people owning more livestock and living in the same area.

Some officials of the international aid group will arrive today. They will inspect the worst drought-stricken areas. Hopefully they will recommend that assistance be granted. We certainly could use food in some places, and more pumps and drilling equipment. Inevitably, the irrigation and crop development program I worked on will be set aside. It is a pity to lose momentum, just when the staff was well-trained. Now the staff will be redirected. We are to work to provide stable living conditions for more people in villages and towns. In other words, we have to figure out what to do with all the people flowing into refugee camps.

The fact-finding tour will begin soon. Goodby air-conditioning. Hello dust. I'll spend two, maybe three weeks in a truck following a faint track across a parched land.

(Move to Square 5)

Scene 5

This has been the worst year I've ever endured. I'm twenty-six and already tired. Everything is going wrong. I planned a happy future. My family was well-to-do. Now everything is changed. My fortune, my future, it has evaporated like the moisture from the soil.

When I was a kid I used to visit a farm which my father owned in the northwest. The family treated me well--as though I were their own son. Now the man is dead and the wife struggles to keep her two children alive. When the rains failed, the crops failed too. This is the fourth year with harvests less than half the average.

The nomads who came to the farm contributed to the destruction. Sure, they had to try to stay alive. But their herds trampled and packed the scorched earth and

ate every leaf in sight.

Now the government has established a refugee camp at the farm. Never have I seen such pathetic children, bellies swollen from malnutrition. And not only the nomads are suffering. The farms have all failed, their supplies of water for people and animals exhausted.

Everyone seems to be ill. Typhoid has been prevalent. And cholera too. Food and medical supplies arrive almost daily in the capital but it takes too long to reach camps like this one. Many foreigners have donated relief supplies. The problem remains to get them to the people who need them most. There are few roads and no train. And even if the roads were better, there are too few trucks. Will it be like this forever?

(Flip a coin to determine whether you move to Heads or Tails)

Scene 6

Heads

I have just been placed in charge of relief supply distribution in this district. The order, delivered by a military officer, came directly from the President. Normally, the bureaucracy would take weeks to process such a transfer.

When I arrived here at the airport the situation was disastrous. Hundreds of tons of grain were being held here because a single customs official refused them entry until regular duties were paid. He was steadfast in his obeisance to the law. All imports, he said, must be inspected, approved, and taxed before they can be moved. I immediately ordered suspension of the regulations for all relief supplies. Now there will be arguments over what is classified as a "relief supply" but at least some things can move out quickly.

Within hours we began loading out trucks. Each 5-ton truck carries rice, dehydrated milk and sealed tins of fresh water. This afternoon we'll begin loading medical supplies.

I have also organized maintenance crews to travel with each truck convoy. They carry a minimum number of simple spare parts--fan belts, batteries, spark plugs. Although the mechanics were given only a few day's training, some were already experienced. Their skills should help reduce the number of delays in transporting supplies to remote areas.

(Flip a coin. If Heads, move to Square 9. If Tails, move to Square 7)

Tails

What a night! There was an attempt to overthrow the government. My apartment building is only a stone's throw from the President's residence. There was shooting all around. I feared my own house would become a battleground. Fortunately, the coup failed and few people seem to have been involved. But the tension will remain for a long time.

A relief plane also crashed last night. It happened at one of the landing strips about 200 miles to the north. The plane had been delayed by a dust storm and arrived late. The strip had neither lights nor radar. The plane hit in the middle of the strip and rammed into storage sheds nearby. Much of the grain and other supplies both in the sheds and on the plane was destroyed.

By dawn word of the crash had spread to people in the area. They came like locusts and carried away everything that could be salvaged. Most of the people desperately need the food. Others will hoard some to sell on the black market. Actually, the growing black market is one of the reasons for the attempted coup. And the international aid officials are critical too. If we can't control the underground sales of relief supplies, they say, then the agencies will cut our supplies.

Political instability is becoming worrisome. Looting is understandable in such hard times. Yet the military is definitely trigger happy. What troubles! Will it ever end?

(Flip a coin. If Heads, move to Square 9. If Tails, move to Square 7)

Scene 7 (Read only if you are on Square 7)

Even now I don't want to believe it. My youngest child died yesterday. I'd left both children with our maid. She phoned to say it happened so quickly she hardly knew the child was sick. When the little one had returned from school she complained of chills. A few hours later she was delirious with fever, then death came swiftly. Now the government has closed the schools, for many children are ill. What should I do? If I leave my work here, distributing supplies, perhaps many more will die. If I do not go home, perhaps my other child will die too. And even if I am with my family, can I stop the disease?

Look, there are 50 trucks waiting to be loaded, mostly with medical supplies. They will be driven all night and unloaded in darkness. The maintenance crews will grease and oil the trucks during the day for the return trip in the evening. That is if everything goes according to schedule. And how many will die if it does not?

(Move to Square 8)

Scene 8 (Read only if you are on Square 8)

The refugee camp officials are jubilant. The delivery system is working as never before. The mood of the people is far more optimistic. The children are getting milk and other fluids regularly. A health unit consisting of two female nurses and one male assistant supervise food preparation and storage as well as tend the minor ailments. Two doctors arrive by plane once a week to treat serious cases.

The outlook is not as good elsewhere. Two very large camps near the northern border are in desperate condition. No roads reach these distribution points and makeshift landing strips are still under construction. Because the situation is perilous, the major relief agencies are cooperatively organizing an airlift to take place as soon as planes can land.

One of the international aid officials is being assigned to work directly with me. We are to design a long-term project for the northern encampment. It involves transporting thousands of nomads from the desert to the southern agricultural lands. We must convince them that they should change their entire life style. Hopefully, they will be re-educated as participants in a national reconstruction project. Some foreign governments have promised help--money and technicians. The most important thing, however, will be to motivate our own people. They must want the change.

Scene 9

Can you imagine, this was once a model farm. I arrived here last night and could scarcely believe what I saw. It is desolate. I once stood near that group of skeletal trees and watched the first water pour from the newly-installed irrigation pump. Someone has destroyed the pump mechanism, probably to repair another pump which by now is also broken. Besides, there is no water.

Every fence post, every bush has been burned as fuel. Bare hovels shelter perhaps 10,000 people. They know I'm here to speak to them about a future they cannot envision. They are so tired and hungry. Who among them has the energy to think about the future?

First I must try to make them understand how this terrible drought came to pass. They all know about the rains. Of course, they don't know how to measure the changes in millimeters or inches. But they know about the wells, the bushes, every change that occurs when even a few raindrops fall on the dry land.

What they do not understand is the role of people in this drama. People and their animals--and we encouraged them both. We improved their health and they multiplied. Prosperity here is counted in children and livestock, not coins or paper. Areas grazed only once in four years came to be grazed annually. More and more people and animals competed for water and the produce of the soil. The animals destroyed more and more plant life. The earth, deprived of humus, could not hold the little rain that fell. The desert won.

But I cannot say to these poor people that this awful condition is their fault. We failed too. We did not educate people. And many of the educated ones also believed that <u>more is better</u>. Nature had always provided in the past.

The moment has come to speak. What shall I tell these people?

(Decide. Move to Square 10)

After making your individual decision, consider the following questions, discussing them with the other players.

1. What are the survival advantages for those who remain in the refugee camps?

2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the resettlement program?

3. What are your prospects of surviving as an active government official over the next forty years?

4. What would you do if faced with a decision that would change your entire way of life?

(Now write your version of Scene 10)

DROUGHT SIMULATION

INTERNATIONAL OFFICIAL SCENARIO

Scene 1

My family is quite prosperous, you know. They own rental properties in several European capitals and modern farms in northern Europe.

I'm sixteen this year and enjoying life enormously. Why, it hardly rained at all in the spring. We played soccer and tennis nearly every day. I loved it. But my grandfather was full of complaints when I arrived to spend the summer on his farm. "We won't have enough grain or hay to feed the animals through the winter," he said. And the tomatoes and peas, how he complained about all the vegetables. Production was so small he cancelled several contracts with local food processors.

And he wasn't the only one who seemed worried. My uncle is a banker in Paris. He says that several West African countries have had too much rain at the same time that we've had too little. Their crops have failed and the governments have applied for loans to provide disaster relief, replace bridges, and so on. But my uncle is afraid to lend them too much money because we might need it here.

Let's go to a movie.

[Move to Square 2 and wait]

Scene 2

Some people just can't be satisfied. Now all my grandfather and uncle talk about is too much rain. For myself, I'm pretty unhappy too. I had a hiking trip planned last week and it poured constantly. I finally just gave up, bought an umbrella, and enrolled in summer school.

My uncle, the Paris banker, just came back from a tour of the Sahel. You know, that's the area of former French colonies in West Africa. Most of them still maintain pretty close ties with France. They seem to be having a drought there. He recommended me for a job with an international organization that is reviewing the needs of the people in the drought-stricken area. I begin in September.

The job sounds pretty interesting. The pay is really good and I like the chance to use the foreign languages I learned in school. The people who interviewed me for the job liked my background, especially the travel. Maybe someday I'll want to become involved in the family business. Right now, it's kind of exciting to be going to Africa in a useful role. I'm glad I took those courses on economic development.

[Flip a coin to determine whether you move to Heads or Tails]

Scene 3

Heads

This may be the capital but it sure isn't Paris! I was here on a school vacation about eight or nine years ago and it has changed quite a bit. There are some highrise office buildings now and the traffic is really congested. The sidewalks are crowded too. I don't think there were so many people downtown then. Maybe that's what makes it seem so hot. I don't know how I'd survive if this office weren't air-conditioned. My car and apartment are air-conditioned too. It really was considerate of the government to arrange these nice accommodations.

I've been assigned to work with an administrator in the ministry for national development. He left town on an inspection tour of irrigation projects just before I arrived. In fact, I should have gone with him. I'll have to see this project myself before I can recommend another loan. I even tried to join him en route but there are no phones in the district. Besides, he'll be traveling from place to place and he didn't leave a schedule with his office staff.

I guess there will be enough to do until he gets back. Restaurants are expensive but pretty nice and I have a generous expense account. I also need to do a lot of background reading before this inspection tour. It might be a good idea to interview a few of the local officials. Some of them might have accurate information on the nomad populations in the north. I hear they're really in trouble—selling off their livestock for next to nothing. Maybe someone at the president's reception tonight has been up north. Surely it couldn't be as bad up there as people say.

Tails

Paris may have been the model but this town has a long way to go. I thought I'd never even get from the airport to town. One old cow just stood there in the middle of the road while the whole herd took its time crossing in front of us.

This hotel is for the birds. The air-conditioning doesn't work. Flies are buzzing everywhere. And the food! There are only two European-style restaurants in the whole place. When one opens, the other closes.

No one seems to know what's going on. I was directed to meet a government administrator from the ministry for development at 9:00 A.M. sharp. He wasn't there and he didn't even leave a message. It took me two hours to find out that he'd already left on his inspection tour. No one seemed to know when he left, where he'd be staying, or when he would return.

The chauffeur for my car says that things are bad in the country. The government, he says, doesn't tell the people the truth. But his relatives in the north are begging for assistance. Crop failures have been widespread. The farms are drying up.

What is worse, many nomads have invaded the farmlands. They claim they're starving and can't continue their annual migration. And the government representative who was to take me to the area is out of town.

Blast this heat! Even my suit has gone limp and I have to go to the President's reception tonight. He's out of town—Paris I've heard—but all the other top officials will be there. Hope I meet someone who is a bit better organized. Anyway, they'll all be asking for money. How can I explain that there is a reluctance to lend to countries who show so little potential for profitable development.

Scene 4

The reception was even worse than I expected. Everybody seems to think money will solve all the problems. Now I'm not denying that it would help. Certainly investment in resource management—water, livestock, agriculture—is well-spent. And there are plenty of people looking for work just in the capital city alone. A few factories here and there could employ lots of cheap labor. But what kind of factories? And where is the market for the products? Most of the people in the interior are so poor that they couldn't purchase one thimble a year. They certainly don't need a factory that would produce 10,000 **every day.**

I just read an article that predicted this drought will get worse before it gets better. Some of the climatological changes may be permanent, at least within our lifetime. And the drought is worldwide, these scientists say. Even the Philippine islands and the United States are suffering.

I've gotten to know a few locals—taxi drivers, maids, shop clerks. They all complain about the demands their relatives outside the capital are making on them. "Send money, send food, send money, send food," it's the same all over. Still, most people in the city seem to behave as if nothing were happening.

A telegram just arrived. It's from the administrator who is supposed to take me on a tour of the agricultural districts. He said he would send someone to pick me up. Meanwhile, "enjoy the city," he said.

Scene 5

Today is my twenty-sixth birthday. I sure don't feel like celebrating. It was all right when my family was here. They provided some relief from the constant depression of work. After I'd been out in the countryside where everything is either dead or dying, it was wonderful to come home to my healthy, happy family. But when the city became so crowded with refugees, I began to worry. The refugees have to live in crowded encampments and the sanitary conditions are awful. The newspapers are afraid to report it but I've heard from reliable sources that cholera and typhoid are becoming frequent. I just couldn't risk my family's health. So I sent them home.

I have the job of coordinating the delivery of emergency relief supplies. The government finally made public what everyone had known for a long time. There is massive starvation everywhere. Some say that at least one million people face death within the month if emergency supplies aren't delivered.

I have nightmares every time I close my eyes, either to sleep or only to rest. All the supplies are piled up at the coastal ports. The government has sent trucks and requisitioned space on the train but few supplies are reaching us. I've asked people in my own organization to find donors who will supply trucks and mechanics as well as food. And if this fuel shortage continues, I'll have to ask for donations just to provide fuel for my own car. I know the lives of hundreds of thousands of people are dependent on my ability to coordinate the relief effort. The first priority is delivery of intravenous fluids and medicine, then of high protein food and cans of safe drinking water.

The government is cooperative but disorganized. The President has asked the military to set up distribution points for the food. This will ensure equitable rationing, they say, and discourage food riots. That's their problem, I guess. I'm losing enough sleep over my own.

Now I've got to go down to the customs warehouse. Some hard-headed, well-intentioned bureaucrat is holding up an entire shipment of penicillin. He says someone must pay customs duty on every item that is imported into the country. How can I cope with a bureaucracy that is trained to deal with ounces when the problems are with tons.

[Flip a coin to determine whether you move to Heads or Tails]

Scene 6

Heads

I could no longer tolerate such inefficiency with so many lives at stake. I went to the President, knowing that he might order me out of the country. Putting the matter as diplomatically as possible, I said that he must either reorganize his government to cooperate more efficiently with relief efforts or he would receive the blame for all the deaths resulting from starvation.

The gamble paid off. The President put the whole customs department under the temporary command of my friend in the development ministry. I'm confident that he can get supplies moving faster out of here and into the worst drought areas. In fact, I've just cabled headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland to increase the number of shipments to three per week.

Now I must start work on organizing an airlift to the three northernmost refugee camps. The rains, such as they were, ran off the parched land up there and funneled into gullies. The rushing water washed out the only bridge between them and us. It will take the army at least two weeks to get a crew up there to replace it.

Reports are still coming in concerning the unusual movement of nomads. Many men have taken their surviving livestock to sell in the towns. They leave their wives, children, and old people in desert camps as close to an oasis as possible. If they can sell a camel or a few cows, they try to buy food and return to help the others. But many die on the trip. And the price of a good cow has dropped from $80.00 to $2.00. The farmers don't want to buy the animals because they too have nothing to feed them.

Tails

I can no longer tolerate this incredible corruption and inefficiency. People all over the world have contributed generously to help these Africans and half the government officials are just lining their own pockets. I spoke to the President this morning.

The President's response was polite but cool. He would "see about it," he said. I later saw his cable to my superiors asking that I be replaced. He called me "rude and petty" in a time of grave crisis. He offered an option, however, and suggested that I be sent upcountry to assist in the refugee camps. His message was clear enough—work but do not criticize.

I packed everything needed for about two weeks and left for the airport. As we approached a crowd, my driver stopped suddenly and left the car. "Exploiter, Hoarder," the people screamed. I suspected that the demonstration was staged for political reasons. No one actually attempted to harm me and I drove the car away from the crowd and to the airport.

[Flip a coin . If Heads, move to Square 9. If Tails, move to Square 7]

Scene 7 [Read this scene only if you are on Square 7]

No one escapes. A message just arrived reporting the death of the local government official's youngest chid. I feel almost guilty about the health and safety of my own family. My wife is vacationing with friends in the south of France. The kids are spending the summer on my grandfather's old farm. He's dead now but the family shares expenses for a housekeeper and gardener to maintain the place for holidays.

I just sent a message of condolence. It seemed so flat, so inadequate. Who is sending messages for the other thousands who are dying daily?

At least the transportation bottleneck seems to have eased. My friend is as efficient as I thought. He plans to increase the volume of supplies we can handle by four times this month. Over two hundred trucks, fully loaded, have left here this week alone. It takes them about five days to make a round trip. If things continue to go so smoothly, perhaps I can take a weekend off and return to see my family.

[Move to Square 8]

Scene 8

I hitched a ride with a relief plane at 3:00 A.M. It was scheduled to leave yesterday but the plane couldn't obtain sufficient fuel. A trainload of gasoline arrived at midnight and a special crew was dispatched to fuel the plane. It was the third time this week that fuel shortages caused delays. Still everything has run pretty smoothly.

It was such a relief to see my family again. But the visit had to be brief and I returned Sunday on the same plane. The pilot flew in low over the northern part of the region. Through the dust-laden air we could still see hundreds of festering animal carcasses. From that altitude, it was easy to see where lakes and rivers had once existed. Their gray chalk-like outlines were rimmed by the bodies of animals that came there in a vain search for water.

I saw a few small herds grazing on what appeared to be only rock and sand. Windstorms swirled the dust beneath us, obscuring the view. The only green we saw was around the few remaining oases. The reports I've been receiving in the capital say that these areas are being overused and may fail too. They are already the last hope, the thread of life, for hundreds of thousands of people. I cannot even contemplate the consequences were the oases to fail too.

We did see one remarkable phenomenon—a patch of earth seemingly unaffected by the drought. Later I learned that it was an experimental farm. Pasturelands, about 1,000 acres, had been fenced to control grazing. Care was taken to control the size of the herds and prevent overgrazing. Rainfall is just as scarce in that area as elsewhere, yet there is some vegetation everywhere within those enclosures. The two wells on the farm are low but neither has failed. Experts attribute the preservation of the water table to the ability of the vegetation to hold moisture in the soil. Maybe, if this drought ever ends, we can help other farmers here learn from this experiment.

Now I'm just trying to proceed one day at a time. Who has time to worry about the future?

[If you are optimistic about improving conditions in the Sahel, move to Square 9.
If you are pessimistic, move to Square 10]

Scene 9

My trip home now seems unreal. For two days I was in another world—eating a five-course meal in a fine restaurant, watching color TV with my kids, taking my wife out to the ballet. Today I have eaten one meal consisting entirely of dehydrated and reconstituted goods. I may not eat again for twenty-four hours.

My friend is speaking to a group of farmers outside a slightly dilapidated house. This used to be his farm. Now it's a refugee camp. He had a good well with a mechanical pump to irrigate about half the tilled fields. The rest was in pasture, fertilized naturally by the livestock herds the nomads brought south on their annual migration. Now it is as parched as everything else in the region. And someone has stolen parts from his well pump to repair another.

He speaks first in French, then repeats his message in two other languages. It is a cumbersome process but necessary. No one looks very attentive. Many recline, their bodies emaciated and weakened by hunger. He's talking to them about the future. Some of them may not live another day. But what can be done that we're not already doing? All the money in the world could not produce water here now. And even when rainfall returns to normal levels, it will take many years to bring land back into production.

Oil—maybe there is oil or some other valuable resource hidden beneath this barren land. It is so hard to think these people may be condemned to this kind of poverty forever.

He's finishing his speech now. "Stay and if you survive, you may be here like this for years. Go to the refugee center and at least you have a chance. Decide now." What a choice. But what if the government fails? What if I can't deliver the relief that my organization has promised? What if the countries that have pledged donations do not honor them?

[Decide. Move to Square 10]

After making your individual decision, consider the following questions, discussing them with the other players.

Having explained your understanding of the relationships between prosperous and poor nations, estimate and explain to other players:

1. What are the survival advantages of typical individuals in poor compared to prosperous countries—when drought strikes?

2. What are your own prospects of survival as an official over the next forty years?

3. What events could increase the probability of success for international emergency relief efforts in the future?

4. What would you as an individual most likely do in a similar emergency situation in the future?

[Now write your version of Scene 10]

INSTRUCTION SHEET

TRADE FAIR

A Simulation of An All-Africa Exposition

Thirty-seven African countries participated in the first All-Africa Trade Fair between February 23 and March 5, 1972. There were at least two official representatives of 37 of the 41 countries of the Organization of African Unity (OAU). Kenya was host to the 150,000 visitors who came to see the exhibits.

The Exposition was a unique and positive presentation of African perspectives and products for consideration by the world. It was also hoped that the Fair would be the beginning of new trading relationships among Africans. OAU member nations are competing for the opportunity to host the second All-Africa Trade Fair.

PARTICIPANTS

Simulation participants represent the 37 African nations which exhibited products at the Trade Fair in Kenya in 1972. Ideally, at least one participant will represent each nation and be responsible for providing a display. On a larger scale, a number of participants can represent a single nation and share in the preparation of exhibits. On a smaller scale, several small countries could cooperate in a joint presentation.

Some participants can also role-play African national leaders. (Students can play double roles—exhibitor and government official—if necessary.) They will deliver the welcoming address and other speeches. A number of students may represent international traders. For example, one student might be a French buyer of palm oil. Another might be another purchaser of cotton and tea. Still others may simply visit and browse.

All the participants should make some effort to simulate the appearance of the people they represent. National leaders particularly should make a special effort to dress and behave as those they are representing. Of course, visitors to the Exposition will be a diverse group—Africans and otherwise. Most will be concerned with business and commerce.

One person can serve as an honorary *Finance Minister* distributing gold certificates to players and supervising the final accounting and reporting of each nation's economic situation following the Trade Fair. For convenience, all transactions will be made using either gold or other commodities as the mediums of exchange.

THE SETTING

Warm springlike weather is typical of February and March in Nairobi, Kenya. The 1972 Trade Fair consisted of exhibit structures built in a large park-like area of flat ground and shade trees.

In simulating the Trade Fair, space should be available for 37 exhibits surrounding an open area for speeches and possibly group activities. (The exhibits may be arranged in any order, perhaps alphabetical for convenience.)

EXHIBITS

Each participant should be acquainted with the location, products, and resources of the country to be represented in an exhibit booth.

Presimulation preparation might include the preparation of two maps. The first should show the representative's country in relation to the rest of the African continent. The second map should show the location of prominent physical features, resources, and product production areas of the individual country.

Each exhibitor's presentation may be enriched by the addition of music, films, photographs, or food typical of the country. (It may be useful to recall that peanuts are grown in almost every country in Africa, rice is widespread and so also is cotton. Thus displays can be easily assembled using any of these or their various by-products.)

The exhibitor is also an accredited trade official. He or she may purchase or sell commodities in exchanges with other African exhibitors or international traders.

OPENING CEREMONIES

The All-Africa Trade Fair in Kenya in 1972 was officially opened by the President of the host country, Jomo Kenyatta. (A Copy of his welcoming speech is enclosed. It should be read aloud.)

Following the welcoming speech, participants may wish to join the speaker in chanting the Swahili word for "pulling together." It is *HARRAMBE*!

TRANSACTIONS

Three kinds of transactions are possible.

1. People from the same nation can purchase and exchange commodities among themselves.

2. People from different African nations can purchase and exchange commodities across national boundaries.

3. People from outside Africa can purchase and exchange commodities with Africans.

The Finance Minister should distribute certificates for 100 ounces of gold to the head of each exhibit. These certificates are paper representing gold stored in the treasury of each nation. (No single currency is used all over Africa, although most systems in use are closely related to three major types of currency used internationally—the pound sterling, the United States dollar, and the French franc. The need for a common African currency remains an unsettled issue among OAU nations.)

The head of each exhibit should also have a copy of the ALL AFRICA COMMODITY LIST.

Participants can make their own forms for COMMODITY SALE and COMMODITY PURCHASE. Both buyer and seller should keep a copy of each transaction. The forms might look like this.

SAMPLE

COMMODITY TRANSACTION

Sold by _____ (nation) to _____ (nation):

_____ (amount)

_____ (commodity)

shipping by cheapest route to buyer's capital city in return for _____ (amount)

_____ (commodity)

Agreed to by _____ Seller's Name

_____ Buyer's Name

CONCLUSION

At the end of the allotted time period, each participant should respond briefly to the following questions.

1. *How much* did you buy and of *what* and *why*?

2. *How much* did you sell and of *what* and *why*?

3. With which other nation did you make the most transactions?

4. With which other nation did you make the *least transactions*?

5. What is your balance of trade? How much have you *earned* or *lost* in terms of gold certificates?

6. To the African nation which you represent, what is your advice on planning for the next All-Africa Trade Fair?

EVALUATION

Discussion will be taking place at several points as the simulation progresses—in the preparation of exhibit booths, for example, or in commentary on the appropriateness of the speeches.

If different groups prepare auxiliary art displays or film or dance programs, all the Trade Fair participants should watch and comment. Is the presentation *accurate*? Is it *effective*? Is it *attractive*? Does it add to your *information* about and *understanding* of a place and a people?

At the end of the simulation, a general evaluation should incorporate all the various participants and activities. The following questions may be useful to start the discussion of TRADE FAIR.

1. What did you learn of greatest value during the simulation?

2. How could the simulation have been made a more valuable experience?

3. What was most enjoyable during the simulation?

4. Which were the most effective exhibits and why?

5. What errors of fact have you corrected as a result of participating in this simulation?

6. How has participation in the simulation familiarized you with African resources, production, and stages of agricultural and industrial development?

7. What mental images of Africa do you now have that differ from those you held before the simulation took place?

WELCOMING SPEECH

- TRADE FAIR -

- A SIMULATION OF AN ALL-AFRICA EXPOSITION -

This fair will send out to the world an inspiring message of the brotherhood of Africa. It represents the determination of modern Africa. It symbolizes our goal of more rapid development. It demonstrates our self-reliance and the proper ways of using our own talents and resources.

Our trade fair is unique. It not only assembles African natural and manufactured goods. Also, these exhibits show the great commercial potential of Africa.

Though we speak many languages, we are all Africans. Forty-one nations are organized cooperatively into the Organization for African Unity. In 1969 we met in Algiers when OAU sponsored the First All-African Cultural Festival. In Somalia in 1970 OAU sponsored the First Workshop on African Folklore. Now we are here. Let 1972 be remembered as a great one because we are together.

Not all could be with us today. Our brothers and sisters represent most African peoples and nations. Yet some had to stay at home. We understand how important their work is and sent our best wishes. Others have not been liberated. We of the OAU continue to support the ideals of twelve African Liberation Movements. Someday these African relatives will also be free in Mozambique, Guinea Bissau, Cape Verde, Angola, South West Africa, Zimbabwe, and elsewhere where African people are oppressed.

Since 1963 we have worked together through OAU. Remembering our charter we must continue to "promote African brotherhood and solidarity, transcending ethnic and national differences so as to achieve a better life for the peoples of Africa." Decolonization has been achieved over most of the continent. This Trade Fair will be a new beginning for our economies. Together we can continue to achieve great progress for our peoples and for the world.

With cooperation we could learn to speak the same language. Highways could be built all across Africa. Railways and sea and air routes can be integrated for everyone's advantage. Already we are linking Addis Ababa to Nairobi with an all-weather road. In the future we can link Lagos and Mombasa. Yet these are just beginnings.

At this Trade Fair we can learn respect for African products. Too often we have hurt ourselves by preferring to buy the more expensive goods imported from other areas of the world. Displayed here are the proofs that Africans can supply African needs. The economists tell us that less than 6 per cent of our exports are being bought by other African nations. This All-Africa Trade Fair will teach us what we have to offer one another. When we meet again in 1976 I hope it can be reported that life and trade have improved throughout Africa. Now enjoy and learn. Work together. Pull together—*Harrambe*!

ALL-AFRICA COMMODITY LIST

	Cotton	Fishing	Gold	Diamonds	Rice	Coffee	Cocoa	Timber	Rubber	Copper	Iron	Livestock	Uranium	Aluminum	Petroleum	Groundnuts	Sugar	Maize	Wheat	Phosphates	Textiles	Manufactures
Botswana				x						x		x										
Burundi	x					x																
Cameroons	x					x	x	x						x								x
Congo Peoples Republic								x							x		x					
Chad	x	x										x				x						
Dahomey	x	x																				
Egyptian Arab Republic	x														x		x					
Ethiopia	x					x						x					x					x
Gabon								x					x		x							
Gambia																x						
Ghana			x	x			x	x						x								x
Ivory Coast		x			x	x	x	x														x
Kenya						x						x					x	x				x
Lesotho				x								x										
Liberia				x					x		x											
Libya															x							
Madagascar					x	x											x					
Malawi	x															x						
Mali	x	x			x							x				x						
Mauritania		x								x	x											
Mauritius																	x					
Morocco		x																	x	x		
Niger												x	x			x						
Nigeria	x						x		x						x	x						x
Rwanda						x																
Senegal		x														x				x		x
Sierra Leone				x	x						x											
Somalia												x					x					
Sudan	x															x	x					
Swaziland	x										x	x					x					
Tanzania	x	x		x		x						x										
Togo						x	x													x		
Tunisia														x				x	x		x	
Uganda	x	x				x				x							x					
Upper Volta	x											x				x						
Zaire Republic		x		x		x			x	x											x	
Zambia										x											x	

WORD ASSOCIATIONS

What first comes to mind when you hear or read these words? Beside each word, write the first thing which you think of. Later, compare and discuss your responses with those of others. (Use a separate sheet of paper.)

snake	*elephant*
ape	*insects*
animals	*people*
black	*white*
dark	*blond*
hairiness	*litheness*
professor	*mutiny*
loyalty	*bravery*
fear	*humanness*
civilization	*jungle*
Tarzan	*Jane*
Lord Greystoke	*Lady Greystoke*
England	*stereotype*

(NOTE: All these words are extracted from the sound-recording, "TARZAN OF THE APES," a 1934 radio broadcast series. Each word was written into the script in order to stimulate mental images among listeners. In your culture do these words trigger similar images among most people? Do female and male responses to these words differ significantly? Within your culture, do different age groups respond uniquely? Do you suppose these words produced images in 1934 similar to those today?)

EXPANDING DESERT

Is a desert a static or living thing?

What happens when a desert expands?

What causes deserts to grow smaller or larger?

The Sahel is a dry region in Africa south of the Sahara and north of the Sudanic zone. Since 1968, there has been less moisture each rainy season. After four or five years this drought has created permanent changes. Lives are being lost. Crops have failed. Farmers and nomads have had to change their ancient lifestyles. Nomads, deprived of their herds, are also deprived of their means of livelihood. In order to survive, they have been compelled to migrate southward to already crowded cities and towns. Southern farmers have raised crops only to find their lands "invaded" by migrants, and their few surviving animals, from the north. And each year the desert creeps closer. In some areas it is advancing at a rate of *thirty miles per year.* Trees and grasses die, rivers dry up, and wells cease to produce water.

Why?

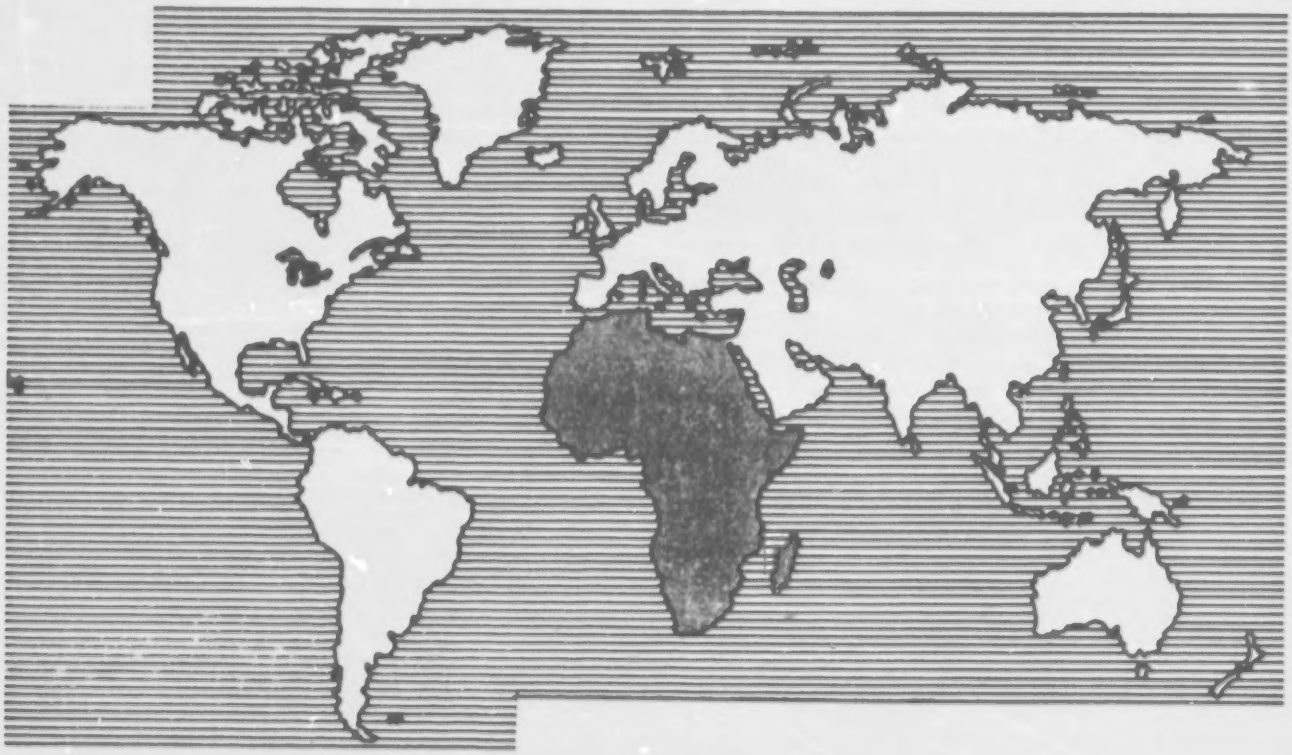
Why are desert regions distributed over world land areas?

QUESTIONS FOR CONSIDERATION

1. What is a desert?
2. Among deserts, what are the different kinds?
3. In deserts, what is the importance of: *altitude, latitude, rainfall, humidity, sunny days, cloudy days, clear nights, cloudy nights, character of land surface, soil quality, plant distribution, animal distribution, human population?*
4. What happens when an agricultural area is overtaken by an expanding desert?
5. What happens to the semidesert agricultural areas when a desert becomes smaller?
6. Of the world's desert areas, which are largest? Smallest?
7. Of late, what desert areas seem to be expanding and why? What desert areas are decreasing?
8. What can be done by peoples in desert and semidesert regions in preparation for long droughts?
9. What can be done to increase the agricultural productivity of desert areas?
10. Given the tragic human situation of the Sahel, what ought to be and what can be done?

HOW LARGE IS AFRICA?

According to people who keep records of such things, Africa has an area of around 11 million square miles.



For comparison, make rough estimates of the size differences between the African continent and North America; the United States; South America; Brazil; Europe; China; Australia; Antarctica.

How important is size alone? What other questions would you ask about the African continent?

Where can people live?

Where do people live?

Can all the land be cultivated?

What are the most valuable natural resources? Water? Minerals? Forest products? Agricultural products?

How many different countries exist on the continent?

How do their governments differ?

How do their people differ?

You may be able to answer all or none of these kinds of questions now. The important thing is to remember to ask them when you explore Africa through these readings.

TOO MUCH WATER OR TOO LITTLE?

1. What is the "right" amount of rain?

2. Which is best, an area with water draining in—or out? Or is either desirable?

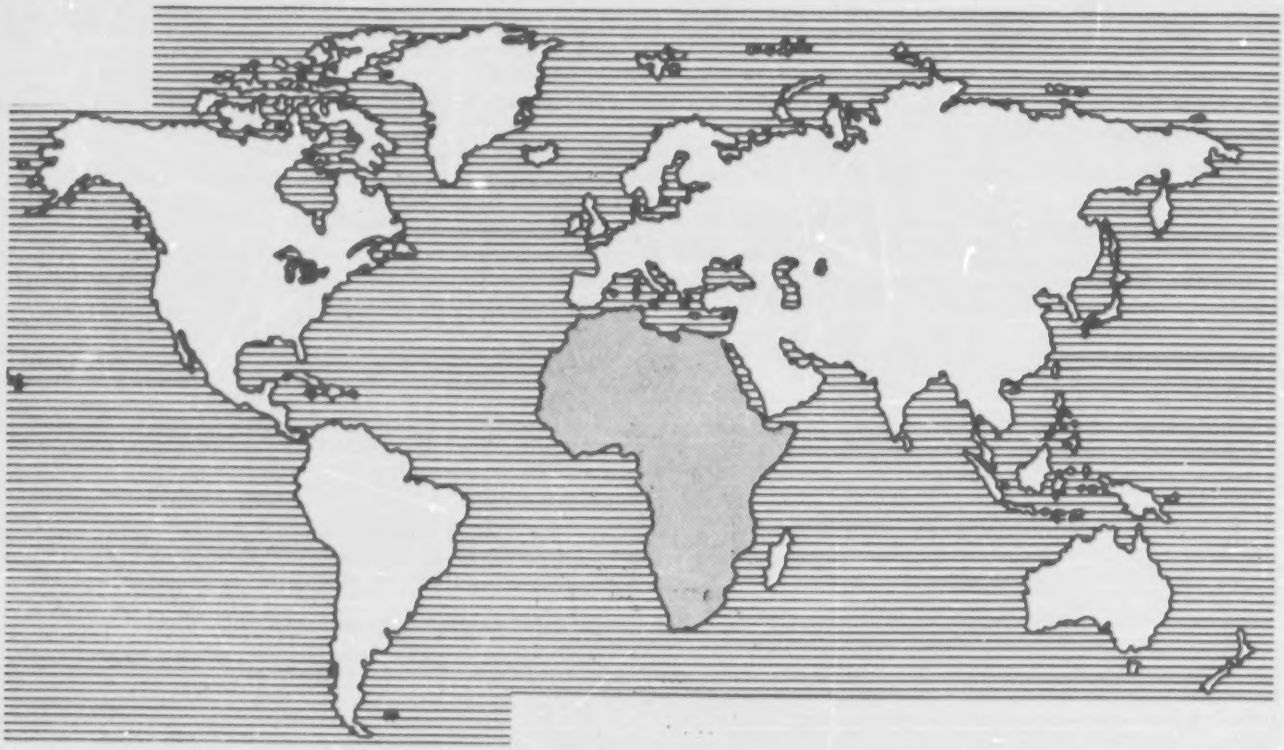
3. How would you describe:

   a. "A falling water table"?
   b. "A rising water table"?
   c. "A stabilized water table"?

4. What factors are associated with *stable*, *rising*, and *falling* water tables?

5. In Africa, where are the water conditions stable and how might the Sahel and Amboseli regions be interrelated? How are they changing?*

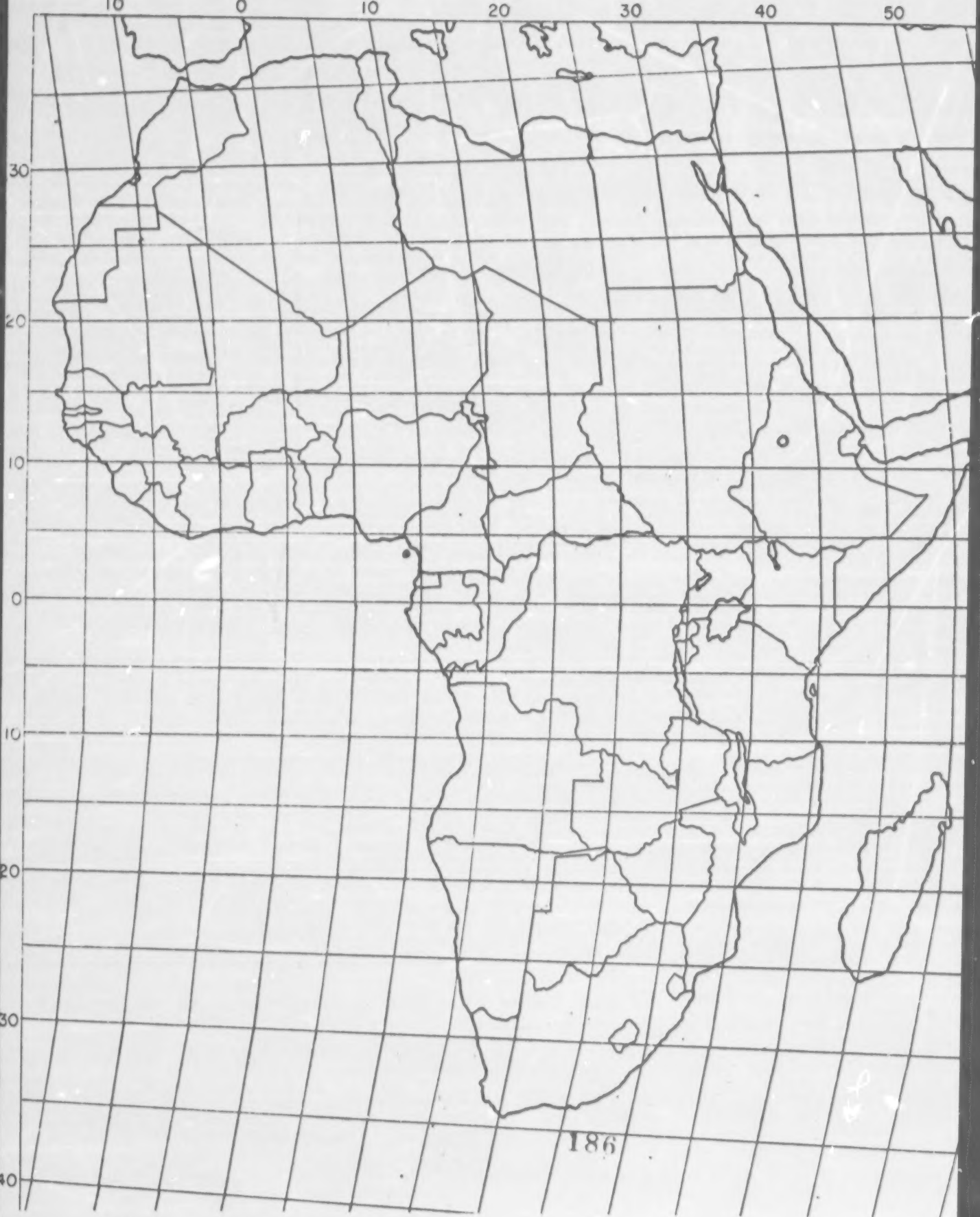
WHERE IN THE WORLD IS ————————?



Though almost everyone can locate the continent of Africa, where are the following African countries?

Afars & Issas
Algeria
Angola
Botswana
Burundi
Cameroon
Central African Republic
Chad
Congo
Dahomey
Egypt
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Ifny
Ivory Coast
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Libya
Malagasy Republic
Malawi
Mali
Morocco
Mauritania
Mozambique
Niger
Nigeria
Portuguese Guinea
Rhodesia
Rio Muni
Rwanda
Sierra Leone
Senegal
Somalia
South Africa
South West Africa
Spanish Sahara
Sudan
Swaziland
Tanzania
Togo
Uganda
Upper Volta
Zaïre
Zambia
Zanzibar

Can you locate these countries on the political outline map provided on the next page?



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I AM AFRAID

"Something bad is going on. Things are not like they used to be. I feel weak. There are evil spirits around here. I am afraid.

"Why do you look at me that way? You scare me. Is something wrong? Everyone looks at me so strangely. It is evil, I know. I feel it in my bones.

"Things are placed in my hut while I sleep at night. Strange sounds awaken me. Something reaches inside the hut and pulls my hair. My mirror has been broken. Some of my clothes are missing. The rest I find turned inside out every morning. Too much salt gets into my food. I think I am going mad.

"Bring the witch doctor to me. Let the evil spirits be cast out."

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. How would you describe the person who is telling the story?

2. Assuming the role of the person telling about these events, what might you have done?

3. Assuming the role of a witch doctor, what treatment might you have recommended?

4. Assuming the role of a medical doctor, what treatment might you have recommended?

5. Assuming the role of a scientific observer, what explanations might you have given for these events?

6. Assuming the role of a religious leader, what counsel might you have given to the individual? To the village elders? (*Be specific in the role you assume. Select: Christian, Muslim, or some other specific religious perspective.*)

7. Would you expect more "witches" to be male or female?

8. Would you expect more "witch doctors" to be male or female?

9. Would you expect the patterns of occurrence by "witchcraft" and "witchdoctoring" to vary in different cultures? How? When? Why?

10. What are some possible relationships between beliefs in witchcraft and one's:

    a. nutrition level?
    b. age level?
    c. educational level?
    d. economic status?
    e. social situation?
    f. political situation?

LIBERIANS—AFRICANS? AMERICANS?

"Oh we often hear that," the Black man in the well-designed white suit was laughing. He had just been told by an American visitor that she felt as if she were at home. The man sipped his iced drink, fanned himself and chuckled again. He had been President of Liberia since 1943. It was 1971. Soon, he knew, he would die. But the afternoon was a happy one. Everyone was in a good mood and these American visitors always expressed interest in his country. He smiled and moved through the crowd. The lady followed.

"You even use the U.S. dollar as money," the lady said. She was Black and from Los Angeles. This was her first visit to Africa and she had chosen to visit Monrovia, the capital of Liberia. Later she would go on to Lagos, Nigeria, then Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, and Nairobi, Kenya. In three months she will also have been to Calcutta, Bangkok, Singapore, Manila, Tokyo, Honolulu, and then back to her home in California. "I've heard so much about Liberia," she went on. "One of my ancestors came here with the first boatload of freedmen from America. He used to write letters and our family saved them all. But they only tell about 1822-1832. After that they stopped. Perhaps he died. We never knew, but it is a favorite story I loved to hear my grandmother tell. And I thought, maybe I just might find some trace.... How would I go about finding records of the first settler?"

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Where is Liberia?

2. How was it settled and by whom?

3. What are Liberia's future prospects? What are the resources in terms of minerals, plants, and people? How advantageous are the location and climate? What are Liberia's historic advantages? Does the United States still have strong influence in Liberia?

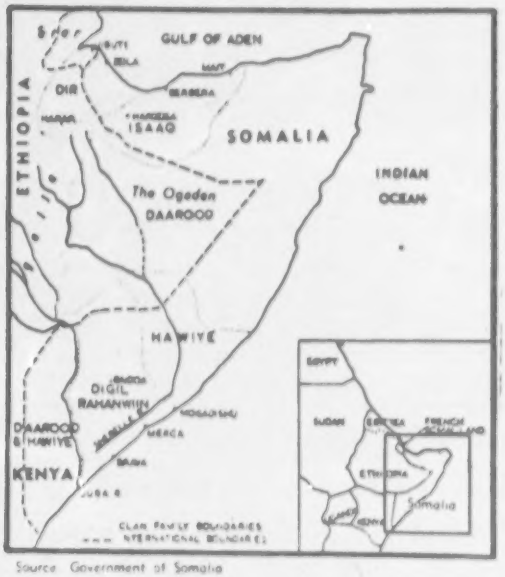
4. What would you expect Liberian life to be like in the year 2000? More like North America or Africa? How can you find out?

5. How similar is the Liberian Constitution of 1847 to the United States Constitution of 1789? How can you find out?

6. What views and attitudes have you changed during this reading and series of questions? How would you now answer the question, "Is Liberia African or African-American, or...?".

BOUNDARY DISPUTE

- North -



- South -

Source Government of Somalia

"I think you are making it very clear, sir." The speaker was chief of a Somali herding tribe. He was speaking in his people's language through an interpreter. Before them was a map, the one shown above. The visiting officials continued their explanation in English.

"Your tribe must respect this boundary," said the Kenyan official. "South of this line are Her Majesty's lands. You say that your father and grandfather grazed their herds in this area. We know this is true. Unfortunately you can no longer do as they did. You must not cross this line any more. Our patrols will be forced to deal with your people harshly if you do."

The man from Kenya stops and nods at the person who is interpreting for the two groups. His eyes glance over the heads of the other tribesmen who are seated nearby. Their wives and children make a circle at their backs. Beyond are their cattle, sheep, and goats. The colonial administrator perspires. Not only is it hot today, but he finds this most uncomfortable work.

The interpreter delivers the Somali's reply. "My name is Mohammed, my people are the children of God. They have grazed these hills for thousands of years. The map of their grazing area appears correct. I know the hills there, and the dry stream bed. Your boundary mark to the West is a broken line. My people will go between the black marks if you like."

Another Somali looks at the map. He points out that the line is like a string of beads on the sand. It could be placed anywhere. The two Somalis talk. "Why don't you move the line south so that no one will be inconvenienced? If Her Majesty visits, she will be welcome. I am sure she will understand our position. Surely the good mother wants us to go on living as we always have."

The interpreter turns to the British official from Kenya: "What shall I say to them now?"

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. What would you say to the tribal chief?
2. What would you say to the colonial administrator?
3. What would you say to Her Majesty?
4. What would you say to the governments of Kenya and Somalia?
5. What do you expect happened following the meeting?
6. Do you know of other boundary disputes? Are they similar or different?
7. What are the best ways of handling disputes?
8. What are the best ways of deciding boundaries?
9. How many kinds of boundaries can you name and describe?

MY LAND IS YOUR LAND

"When your grandfather came, my grandfather said, 'You are welcome here. There is plenty for all. Here, live on this piece of land. Use it to grow food for your family. We all must eat.' He may have accepted gifts. Such is the custom among strangers. Maybe he signed his name. But he only gave the *use* of the land. It cannot be taken away from the Kikuyu. We are willing to share. What sense does it make for you to order us to leave? Where should we go? Why do you think that you have owned this land since your grandfathers' time? Land is not owned—it is shared and used."

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. How would you reply to this Kikuyu spokesman?
2. What would you do if you inherited legal title to the land in question?
3. How are land ownership disputes handled in tribal society? In urban society? In your society? In different African societies?
4. As a lawyer for the Kikuyu, what would you have advised in this situation?
5. What are the differences between "using" and "owning" land?
6. What proves ownership of land?
7. As a judge deciding a land ownership case, how would you decide?
   a. Using European or North American law as the basis?
   b. Using Kikuyu or other tribal law as the basis?
   c. Using "productive settlement" as the criteria?
8. Who should decide who can "own" and "use" land?
9. What other land problems have you heard which are similar to this one?
10. What constitutes ownership in terms of your present values?

PREJUDICE

How does it begin, this *prejudice*?

Are we born with it or is it learned?

Just how helpful is prejudice in our lives, and how hurtful?

Listen to these conversations from Africa's colonial experience. How do these human actors express prejudice? Toward what and whom? And why?

> "Those dirty savages don't even try to appreciate what we are doing for them," grumbled a Belgian labor officer to me, idly flicking his whip. "We have given them good schools, we have put clothes on their backs, we have given them a chance to earn money and improve their standard of living, we are making their country one of the richest in the world, and they are not even grateful. You have to treat them like dogs."
>
> He did. And no doubt he was one of the many who were surprised when the dog turned and bit its master. In fact, the Belgian government did not supply schools. It merely *allowed* them, exclusively Catholic mission schools to begin with, then Protestant. It created new boundaries, carving the Congo up into denominational areas, as though tribal differences were not enough. The clothes on the backs of the workers were rags cast at them by their masters until such time as they could save enough from paltry wages to buy a new shirt or a pair of cheap shorts. And with the rags came a sense of shame in the human body, carefully inculcated in the mission schools, where men and women and children were taught to be more proud of clothes than of the body God gave them. The new standard of living was largely an opportunity to be swindled by the multitudes of non-African storekeepers, who swept in like vultures to eat up the meager earnings of the new, unwanted, and, from the African point of view, unnecessary cash economy. And if the Belgian Congo was becoming rich, its riches were largely diverted to Belgian pockets, not African.
>
> "Hang every one in ten!" shouted Colonel Grogan, of the Kenya Legislative Council, for to the Kenya settler this was the only language the bloody natives would understand. Yet Colonel Grogan was a rather mild man. I had an entertaining luncheon with him before I knew what or who he was. The only discordant note during the meal was when he heard I was going to visit Makerere College, in Uganda, the only college in the whole of East Africa where Africans could get anything more than a poor high school education. "Just teaching a lot of stupid monkeys to dress up like Europeans," he said, "won't do any good. Just cause a lot of discontent. They can never be like us, so better for them not to try."

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Toward whom is prejudice directed in these conversations? How many objects of prejudice can you identify and describe?

2. What techniques are used to express prejudice? What words and manners of speaking make prejudice most clear?

3. Had you been Turnbull, what would you have said to the Belgian labor officer? And to Colonel Grogan? And in their places, what might you have said to Turnbull?

4. How might it be argued that none of the three speakers is prejudiced but that their words are misunderstood? Might all of them be prejudiced?

[Excerpt from Colin Turnbull, *The Lonely African*, New York: Simon Schuster, 1962, pages 56-57. Reprinted by permission. Turnbull also authored *Forest People*, and *Mountain People*. Gordon Allport, *The Nature of Prejudice*, is another book of possible interest.]

HOW DO PEOPLE BECOME WHITE?

My partner and I were assigned to a Somali village. We were Peace Corps Volunteers. We wanted to learn about Africa.

Some of the more than a hundred villages had never before seen a white person. Not even a British colonial officer, nor an Italian trader had passed through. We were their first. The children were curious but somewhat frightened by our abnormal appearance. The village elders had a meeting to decide how to present us to the youngsters. They didn't invite us but occasionally people would leave the meeting and come to look at us again.

We waited.

One of the elders explained their decision as heads nodded in agreement. "These are Somalis," he explained. Our language training enabled us to understand what he was saying, yet we continued to think in English. He went on to explain that we had been "chased by a giant rhinoceros in the brush." He pointed out that "in fear" we had "turned white."

From then on we were respected and quite well accepted by the people of this village and their neighbors. They called us the "white Somalis."

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. How would you have felt as one of the two young American Peace Corps Volunteers?
2. Never having seen a person of another color, how would you have responded as a child? As an adult? As the village's leader?
3. What is your evaluation of the explanation given for why these "Somalis turned white?"
4. What stories have you heard which are similar in some way to this one?
5. What experiences might cause the Somali children to seek another explanation?
6. How might this experience have affected the attitudes, perceptions, and values of the two white people involved?
7. What might they be doing in the United States now?
8. What memories of them may still be discussed in the Somali village?

DEVELOPMENT FOR WHAT?

"Dams? Factories? Skyscrapers? Jet airports? Large foreign loans which must be repaid? Large tracts of land owned by others to provide local agricultural employment? *Development?* What does that mean? Who benefits from those kinds of *development*?

"In my boyhood days in Malawi, I remember my mother and grandmother walking five to ten miles just for water. I've wanted to bring a better life to my people. Whatever developments others suggest, I will work during my life to bring water from mountains to villages.

"We should control our own lives and our own economy. Great progress can be made through small-scale projects. We already have the skills and technology to bring water to every village. Why import people at a high salary to build a dam or runway and then leave? Better to do things ourselves and to go slowly. Take the tea project, for example. Many small farmers have improved their situation by planting garden-size plots with tea plants. The entire family works. Carefully tended, hand-picked tea brings the highest prices. Tobacco has been similarly successful.

"Or consider the rice growing project. We used to import the little rice Malawians ate. Then we studied the land and rainfall patterns ourselves. We decided we could grow our own rice right here. It was a small experiment at first. Now rice is being grown in many places. We have more to eat than ever before and some rice can even be exported.

"You say this is a tiny country. Nevertheless, we have room to expand. Yes, there are only 23 million acres in Malawi. But 13 million can be farmed. Only modest developments are needed. Roads and irrigation and drainage systems are needed. It is sometimes tempting to invite in the huge companies and giant equipment. They could do the projects quickly—and expensively. By plugging along at our own pace the jobs also get done. As we work, we learn. And more and more Malawians have employment. Still the World Bank calls us the world's poorest country. They count the money and divide by the number of people. By that definition we are indeed poor.

"But look around you. Is Malawi so bad? Do you see any human misery or starvation? No, of course not. Is anyone without a house to live in? No. We all have homes. And our families support us in old age. Everyone has a garden to provide food.

"This is our position: 'Our land is underutilized. Much has been badly used. We think that human willpower and technology can provide for us now. And when there are more Malawians in the future, they too can be provided for.' We know who we are and where we are headed. What do you think of these views?"

What do you think of these views?

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Where is Malawi?

2. How large is Malawi?
   a. How much land?
   b. How many people?
   c. How much money?
   d. How much production?

3. On these four points, how does Malawi compare with your own country?

4. What is the meaning of *development*?

5. What are your views on how best to *develop*?
   a. *Labor*—local or imported?
   b. *Capital*—local or imported?
   c. *Decisionmaking*—local or imported?
   d. *Intensity*—capital intensive or labor intensive?
   e. *Investment*—pay as you go or borrow?
   f. *Speed*—rapid development or slow development?

6. If Malawi is "like a mouse," what imagery would you use to represent other African nations—and your own?

7. What do you think of Malawi?

WHO IS AN AFRICAN?

"Rhodesia's my home, man. Don't you know? Everyone has a home. This is where I was born. My three kids were born here. My wife was born here. This is where we belong. I'm willing to die here if necessary. My father, his home was England. And maybe he shouldn't have come here. But he did. Now what are you going to do about that?"

Ian was a miner. He was arguing with a newspaper reporter sent to cover a Rhodesian miners' strike.

"Now let's be clear. Get this right in your paper that's going to tell the world what is going on here. We're striking for better wages, that's all. Better for white and better for black. Nothing else. Don't get it wrong, young lady. We are miners and we work hard and we want a good day's pay for our work. Understand?"

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Who is an African? What makes them African?
2. How many kinds of Africans can you describe?
3. If human beings originated in Africa, as the research of the Leakeys suggests, then who is not African? If human beings originated elsewhere, who first went to Africa and when and why?
4. How is the "White African" problem similar to the "White American" problem? "Black American," or "Native American?"
5. What positions on wages are implied by the miner?
6. How would you expect the wages of black and white miners to differ if at all? Where in Africa would you expect most wage differences? Least? On what bases?
7. As a reporter for a European-American News Service, what questions would you ask the miners?
8. What would newspaper readers learn of Africa from the article you would write?
9. As Ian's oldest offspring, what would you advise your parents to do? Stay in Rhodesia? Move to South Africa? Move to England? Something else?
10. As the oldest offspring of a Black Rhodesian miner, what would you advise your parents to do?
11. As Ian's father, retired in England, what would you advise him and his family to do?
12. As Ian's wife, what would you advise him to do?
13. As the mining company wage settlement officer, what would you advise the miners to do?
14. As the head of the Rhodesian governmental labor department, what would be your advice to the mining company? To the miners?
15. What do you suppose is being mined and where is it likely to be sent and sold?
16. Were you on a committee to decide the rights of Black and White Rhodesians, what suggestions would you make?
17. How would you characterize Rhodesia and its people in a discussion with classmates?
18. How would you describe the effects of colonialism on Rhodesia in terms of Ian and his Black working partner in the mines?
19. Are Rhodesia's problems unique?
20. What should be the role of international public opinion concerning race relations in Rhodesia? Are trade boycotts an effective weapon? Are they just? What are their effects?

ASIAN AFRICANS: CITIZENS OF WHERE?

"Twenty-four hours.... Twenty-four hours.... My whole life in this country and now orders to leave."* The man was obviously distressed. He sat surrounded by his family along the roadside. His house and business had been confiscated. They hoped a truck would pass by and offer to carry them to the airport. Within a twenty-four hour period they must leave the country. And go where?

To India?
To England?
To Canada?
To the United States?
To Brazil?

"Ordered to leave Uganda. I am disgraced." There were tears in his eyes. His wife and daughters waited. Said the wife, "My father came here from India to Africa to help build a railroad. We have lived here for two generations. Look at us; we are Indians, it is true, but we are also Africans."

The husband spoke. "The officials say that we are not Ugandan citizens. Though we have lived here and paid taxes they say we are parasites. Our automobile has been stolen. Our shop has been raided and the doors of our house are boarded up—with us on the outside. Of course, the government officials say that perhaps our profits were too high and, besides, they didn't direct anyone to steal or damage our property. What can one do? At the airport we will probably be robbed again."

"We are fortunate," his wife interrupted, "the British officials have arranged air passage to England. Some of us may be resettled there. Or they will help us go elsewhere. You can drive. You can find work driving a taxi. We can save and again have a small shop. The girls and I can cook and sew. We are grateful to be alive. That is a blessing."

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Who has your empathy in this case, the Ugandans, the Indians, or both? Why?

2. In the Ugandans' role, how would you behave toward "noncitizen Indian residents?"

3. In the Indians' role, how would you behave toward Uganda and Ugandans? Would you have applied for citizenship?

4. As an Indian required to leave Uganda or another African nation, would you prefer to go to India, England, or Canada if all three would accept you? Why?

5. What similar stories of people being required to leave a country have you heard?

6. In your own country, what are the legal requirements for "noncitizens?" Are "aliens" permitted to stay as long as they like? Can they enter business and own property? Can they be required to leave?

7. Why didn't the Indians acquire citizenship during the era of British colonialism? Why didn't they acquire citizenship when Uganda became a nation?

8. As a representative to the United Nations, what would you have proposed during the expulsion of Indians from Uganda? Imagine yourself alternately in the role of representative from: Uganda, India, England, Canada, and from your own country.

9. What is the meaning of *citizenship* in a *nation*?

10. How are the African experiences with nationalism and nationhood similar to the experiences in other parts of the world including your own?

*On August 4, 1972, by official decree, President/General Idi Amin ordered all Asians to leave Uganda in 24 hours. Asians have been similarly expelled from Kenya and Malawi.

ALL MEN ARE MY BROTHERS

We must go create something new, something African. Neither capitalism nor socialism will do. The one seeks to build a happy society by exploitation of man by man. The other seeks to build its happy society on a philosophy of conflict between man and man.

No, something new is needed—UJAMAA is like an umbrella. It can unify the country and build the nation.

We are so young. We are just beginning. And having few books, we chose to base our work on the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights. It is our only "book."

What we seek is the same kind of spirit that guided the creation of Israel—to be a country of *kibbutzniks*. It all fits together. Our tribal customs, our land use, our egalitarianism. The *kibbutz* is based on work. So is our tribalism. We have a custom of sharing everything we have with a guest. But after three days the guest must leave or get to work with his host.

All men are my brothers. All are members of my extended family.

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Of the African leaders in the postcolonial period, whose ideas are being expressed in the paragraphs above? Can you attribute the ideas to any one person? Who? How could you find out?

2. These ideas were expressed in two books, *Ujamaa, the Basis of African Socialism* and *The Second Scramble*. Both were published in 1962 in Dar es Salaam. Where is that?

3. In the first paragraph above, what is the concept being expressed?

4. In the second paragraph, what justification is given for UJAMAA?

5. Where can you find a copy of the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights? What kinds of relationships between people does it suggest?

6. How, in the fourth paragraph, are Israeli and African backgrounds, realities, and hopes viewed as being similar in nature?

7. What kind of society would result from acceptance of the belief expressed in the fifth paragraph above? What success would you expect such a society to have? What do you suppose has happened to the spokesman of these ideas since 1962?

[DATA: The five paragraphs are adapted from a *Fieldstaff Report* by E.A. Bayne, "Freedom and Unity?" published in March 1963. The author referred to in questions 1 and 2 is Julius K. Nyerere. The five paragraphs are based upon an interview with his brother, Joseph Nyerere. He is expressing his own, Julius's, and the beliefs of other Tanganyikan leaders as well. A copy of the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights is available through libraries, encyclopedias, or may be requested from the United Nations Secretariat, New York, New York.]

EXTRACT

"He stood on an island of paved surface, braced against the assault on his senses. He felt the pulsing heat of the smelting furnaces. His nostrils recoiled from the blasts of sulfur fumes. He teetered off-balance and sought the sound of his own voice in the roar that engulfed him. Ahead was the black hole of the mine, deep, waiting. He adjusted his headlamp, threw a leg over the cart, and waited to be lowered into another world."

The paragraph you have just read is an extract. It is a moment in the life of millions of Africans who come to work in gold, diamond, copper, or other mines. The paragraph also concerns an extract—mineral resources. In Zambia and Zaïre the mines are the chief sources of income for the new nations. In South Africa, where the mines depend on relatively cheap African labor, they are the chief economic base for the wealthiest, most technologically developed nation on the continent.

Mining is an extractive industry. The resources which it consumes are nonrenewable. Gold, iron, copper, tin, aluminum—these metals can be removed from the earth only once. A continuing supply is dependent thereafter on recycling of the products containing the metals. Coal, petroleum, natural gas—when these "fossil fuels" are used, they are truly consumed irreplaceably.

Most African countries have assumed responsibility for the use of their own resources within the past fifteen years. Before, policies governing their exploitation were set by colonial governments. Africans are still dependent in some ways on outsiders—for certain technology, spare parts, credit. But, by and large, the new supervisors of resource exploitation are independent policy makers. They are more concerned than their colonial predecessors with planning for the future as well as the present.

Those who must design resource policies in Africa share certain common problems. They want to control supply and limit production in order to get the highest price over the longest period. They also want to use as much local labor as possible. This means they must invest in technical training facilities. They must also strike a balance between a system which uses many workers and few machines, yet has high production yield, and one which uses few workers, and more machines. Their finished products must be competitive on world markets.

Some of the problems of extractive resource planning apply also to agricultural products. Whereas several crops of rice, or cotton, or peanuts may be grown in a year, other commodities may take years to reproduce. Palm oil or rubber tree plantations require several growing seasons to mature. Teak and mahogany trees take several generations. Fisheries can be exhausted quickly without proper conservation policies.

ACTIVITIES

Prepare a list of all the resources and products you associate with Africa. Then supplement your list with additional information from encyclopedias or the World Almanac.

What are Africa's major resources? What has the most value on the current market? Which have greatest potential value?

Classify resources and their products according to type (extractive, renewable—long and short term, raw material, manufactured, etc.). Do any patterns emerge?

Consider the markets. Where are the resources sold? Who buys the manufactured goods? Where are luxury items produced and consumed? Where are consumer basics sold? Where are they produced?

Inventory your community. Are there any goods of clear African origin for sale? Are there goods which contain substances which may or may not be of African origin? Are there goods bearing an American or European label that might have been produced in Africa?

* * *

Pretend you are the Minister of Economics for an African nation. Choose carefully, then design a resource policy for that country for the next ten years.

Extend the simulation. Choose a Minister of "Foreign" Relations. What role will you allow "foreigners" to play in your nation's economy?

Choose a representative to the International Development Bank. How will you finance development over the next ten years?

How far can you extend the simulation?

BLACK AND WHITE WAGES

"Look Mr. Charles, Sir. Maybe you can't pay me more money. You say I work hard. Still you pay Joe twice as much. We work the same. It is not right. Maybe I will go over the border. In Zaïre the pay is plenty. If I leave you may have a white man to run this machine. It will cost you more. Do you want me to leave?"

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. How would you answer?
2. What is at issue?
3. What is the fairest way to determine wages?
4. Who should set wages?
5. Should Black and White wages differ?
6. Where is the speaker likely to be at the time of this conversation?
7. Where is Zaïre? How far away is it likely to be?
8. What are the possible advantages of working in a country other than your own? Disadvantages?
9. What other stories have you heard about people who consider moving because of economic motivation?
10. In the worker's place, would you stay or go? Why?

EQUAL PAY FOR EQUAL WORK?

You could hear a pin drop. The crowd was hushed. Even the breathing seemed to stop. Everyone strained to hear what the manager would say. The challenge was clear: "Equal pay for equal work." Would the company be shut down?

They waited as Mr. Plessy mulled the matter over in his mind. He had the stockholders and company directors to please. They were all in Europe or North America. But he would have to face them soon. This was his thirty-fifth year with the company. Sweat ran down his flushed face. Every vein seemed to stand out and pulse. One wrong word and the dominoes would fall. One company operation after another would have to be shut down. It was like being a part of a machine, he thought. The customers all over the world; the banks extending credit from Europe; the government permitting this and that, helping keep the company in operation without ever stating directly what was being done; the miners—black and white—and their families; schools; grocery stores—it all blurred in his mind. He must speak.

Clearing his throat, Mr. Plessy began, slowly. The crowd almost gasped, so tense was the moment. "I think you are saying that unless the company describes each job and pays a flat wage for the task, that you will walk off." About half the crowd murmured as if to approve.

"Well, then," his voice louder and higher in pitch, "that is what will be done."

A cheer broke out. It was pandemonium. Half the crowd and more were overjoyed.

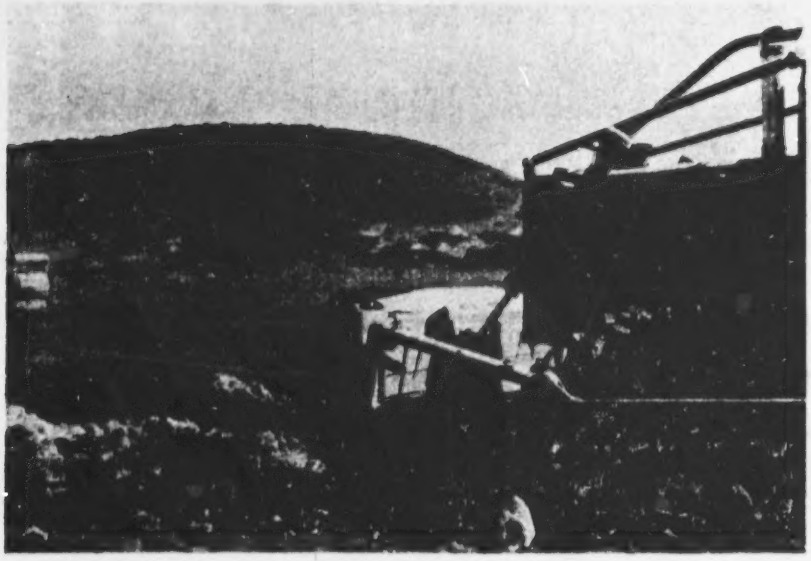
QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. As an employee, what would your reaction have been?
2. What was at issue? Can you tell from the story? Equal pay for whom? What kinds of people? Who won or who lost?
3. How should pay be determined? By whom? What factors should be considered?
4. What similar wage disputes have you heard of?
5. How would you evaluate Mr. Plessy's performance? In his role, what would you have said?
6. Who would likely have been in the crowd in Rhodesia? In Zaïre? In Ivory Coast? In Zambia?
7. How do you suppose the stockholders, company directors, distributors and creditors would have felt about the decision?
8. What alternative events could have logically followed the decision made by Mr. Plessy?

200

WHAT WILL HAPPEN NEXT?

PHOTOGRAPHS FOR INTERPRETATION



QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What climate patterns do the photographs suggest?
2. What changes do the photographs indicate?
3. What results might these changes have?
   a. How will the land be affected?
   b. How will local animal life be affected?
   c. How will local people be affected?
   d. How will other people be affected?
4. What different levels of technology are shown?
5. What will happen next?

NEWS OUT OF AFRICA

What do you know about Africa? How have you learned about Africans?

Mostly we depend on the news media to describe what is going on outside our country. Newspapers, magazines, radio, and television report current events. Books and movies about Africa also contribute to our mental picture of the continent and its people. What is being presented? What is being left out?

And of the information we receive, which is correct? How can we know the difference between accurate reporting and that which is inaccurate or misleading?

During the study of Africa keep a record of the incoming news. What, on a daily and weekly basis, is happening in Africa, according to the news media which serve your community?

What is being left out? Why?

Set up a file for newspaper clippings and notes on magazines or television programs. Are there patterns to the reporting? What do the major emphases seem to be?

Students can rotate the daily jobs of listening to and reporting on radio and television newscasts. At the end of a week—or month—the class as a group should have indication of the pattern of news information relating to Africa. Perhaps some students have lived in other communities and can report on any differences in the reporting of African news in other places.

You may also wish to go over the collection of clippings and reports and discuss what responses different African individuals or nations might have to this information. How, for example, would the reports on Ethiopia be regarded in that country or in Kenya or Algeria?

Can you imagine yourself to be an African? If you can, try to explain to your classmates what you most want them to learn about Africa and your life there. How does that differ from what is actually being reported?

Why?

→

WORLD PRESS REPORTS ON BURUNDI

There is tragedy in Burundi. Thousands of people have been murdered.

Since Burundi became independent in 1962, and sometimes before, violence has been frequent. The Hutu and the Tutsi peoples are pitted in what appears to be a life and death struggle. An estimated 100,000 to 200,000 people were killed in this struggle in 1972. The following articles are typical of world press coverage. You may want to update information on the current state of the inter-ethnic conflict in Burundi, a Maryland-sized nation of *four* million people south of the equator in East-Central Africa.

Burundi "is going through moments of pitiless and ferocious madness."—*Pope Paul VI, May 28, 1972.*

"Certain elements of the foreign press, having financial difficulties or lacking any sensational news, delight in orchestrating a campaign of lies, defamation, and denigration of our country..."—*Radio Bujumbura, Burundi, May 29, 1972.*

"We are concerned with the fantastic interpretation of the Burundian radio of our intentions. Radio Bujumbura accuses us of having launched 'a poisonous campaign.' That is a strange statement, for what we did was make very clear the responsibility of those who by their aggressions and massacres unleashed the tragedy of Burundi...."—*Le Soir, Brussels, Belgium, June 6, 1972.*

"Contrary to what Radio Bujumbura has declared, our paper has not ignored the Hutu revolt and the atrocities which the rebels have committed. Several times, repeating the numerous accounts which have reached us almost daily, we have exerted ourselves to report all the events very objectively. Thus, very recently we once again emphasized that Hutu and Tutsi together resisted the attacks of rebels in the regions that these latter invaded. On the basis of testimony by absolutely reliable sources, we must, alas, add that right after the repression [of the rebellion] the forces of order caused a schism among the defenders by likewise killing the Hutu who had resisted the rebels."—*La Cité.*

"On the one hand we declare that we cannot doubt the objectivity of our correspondents, for their reports agree with those that have been published in the international press. On the other hand, we must recall that Burundi shut out foreign correspondents for one month: the precise time during which tens of witnesses affirmed to us that they had seen the massacre of Hutu government employees, monitors, simple students whose bodies were, by the truckload, dumped into ditches that were then filled up by bulldozers. Does Burundi today invite the correspondents in for the opening up of those graveyards?"—*La Cité, Agence France Presse dispatch, June 6, 1972.*

Whatever may be the precise truth about the massacre in Burundi, it differs in at least one respect from the tragedies of Nazi Germany, Biafra, and Vietnam—the comparative passivity of the outside world.... For awhile, during May and June, when the slaughter was at its worst, Burundi made a brief appearance on the front pages of the world's newspapers. But there was remarkably little follow-up. When some facts became known, few concrete actions were taken to halt the tragic march of events and to call to account before the international community those who were responsible.

Except for a very few persons who denounced the atrocities, there was a general silence. No one wanted to become involved. Foreign diplomats stationed in Burundi said little or nothing for fear of jeopardizing their countries' relations with the Burundian government or the lives of their own nationals residing there...—Victor D. Du Bois, *To Die in Burundi, Part II: Foreign Reactions* [VDB-7-,72], Fieldstaff Reports, Central & Southern Africa Series, Vol. XVI, No. 4, 1972.

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. What world press reports on Burundi have reached your community?
2. What should the Burundi government have done regarding the killings of 1972?
3. What should the world press have done?
4. What should the United Nations have done?
5. What should the Organization for African Unity have done?
6. What should each nation surrounding Burundi have done?
7. What should your own nation have done?
8. What should be done now?
9. What should be done if equivalent tragedies arise in the future?

SNACKING—ETHIOPIAN STYLE

Ethiopian cuisine is tasty and interesting. The native dish is *injera* with *wat*.

The name *wat* applies to a whole variety of sauces which are mixed with individually minced portions of beef, chicken, or mutton. The common ingredient in all the different kinds of *wat* is *berbera*, an explosively hot Ethiopian pepper.

Injera is a kind of bread. It is made from a cereal grain called *teff*. When it is baked, *injera* has a spongy, almost foam rubber-like texture. It is also made in different colo[illegible]metimes red, dark or yellow. Ideally, the bread is cooked over a fire of eucalyptus wood. The smoke supposedly adds to the flavor of the *injera*.

Suppose you could visit Ethiopia for a day. You might begin one morning by wandering down Addis Ababa's main street. By eleven o'clock you could find yourself on the edge of the market area. Suddenly you're hungry. Then, wedged between a stall selling woolen rugs and one selling religious ornaments, you see a restaurant. Hesitantly, you slip through the doorway.

The first thing you see is a huge wicker-type basket. It occupies the center of the round room and is filled with fresh *injera*. Around the basket, like spokes of a wheel, are small individual eating areas.

A waitress appears. She guides you to one of the eating areas. The ritual begins. She brings a basin to wash your hands. Ethiopians use this occasion to wash only the fingertips of the right hand, the eating hand. There are serving spoons but no individual eating implements.

Watching the other diners, you wonder whether you can eat without making a mess. Ethiopian table manners require patience and skill. As long as you're here, why not give the food and eating style a try?

Now a host of waitresses bring almost a dozen covered dishes containing *wat*. One waitress senses your anxiety. She demonstrates the correct technique. Five different types of the sauce and meat mixture are placed on a single piece of *injera*. The skill consists in breaking a piece of bread, folding it slightly, scooping a portion of the sauce, and popping it into your mouth—all with one hand.

You now have a mouthful of liquid fire. Quickly you learn to sample small quantities of each sauce before taking a large bite. Half an hour later you are filled, refreshed, and invigorated by the spicy sensations still lingering on your palate. You are ready to re-enter the street and explore the city again.

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You might like to simulate an Ethiopian restaurant as a class or group activity. Flat, Syrian-style bread, fresh and pliable, is a good substitute for *injera*.

Time-Life's cookbook series, *Foods of the World*, contains a volume on *Africa*. It has recipes for several Ethiopian dishes. You may also use your imagination.

One very simple *wat* consists of raw hamburger, very lean, mixed with a paste composed of sweet green (bell) peppers, cayenne pepper, garlic and onion. Add salt to taste. If you are squeamish, cook the meat.

Your group might wish to prepare a communal meal with bread and more familiar foods that have the texture and consistency of *wat*. You might try egg salad, tuna salad, deviled ham, mashed chick peas and garlic, and so on. Remember, use only the right hand! And if you wonder why, well, that's your next area of research.

WHAT DO AFRICANS PRODUCE?

This scenario might have taken place in a decolonializing newly independent African nation. A leader is speaking.

First we must produce sufficient food for our own people. At the same time, but second in importance, we must develop specialty crops. These must be suitable for our soil and climate. The maximum number of people should be employed in worthwhile productive work. Our exports will bring in cash. This can be used to purchase the imported products we need.

To build an industrial base we must import machinery—at least at first, while getting established. It will be difficult, for we are competing with highly developed nations. They have many years of lead time. Their customers are loyal. Where we fit in, we must offer a better price or better product or better service. Otherwise, purchasers will continue to buy from the established industrial nations.

Mining and lumbering can continue as extractive industries. But we must be cautious. Once a mineral deposit is used up, it cannot be replaced. So a strategy of keeping prices up and production steady is advisable. The days when we had to sell for less than our real costs are too easily remembered. By all means let us avoid such events by caution. This means planning.

We must plan our own futures. Our potential human and natural resources are only beginning to be realized. Planning a steady progressive development is what we have done. Now these hopeful yet reasonable plans should be carried out.

ACTIVITIES

1. List the goods you think of in association with Africa. What patterns does your list reveal?

2. Classify the list according to product type: RAW MATERIALS and FINISHED PRODUCTS. Further sub-classify the listed items as: Luxury Product or Basic Product. What patterns does your classification reveal?

3. Inventory the African goods available for purchase in your community. Of what types are these products? What products could have originated in Africa but have been reprocessed and labeled elsewhere before being imported to your country?

4. What is Africa's greatest potential product in the world trade market?

5. If you were the leader of an African nation, which would you choose? And what economic developments would you discourage? Which would you encourage?

6. If you were the leader of a non-African nation, which would you choose? And what African imports would you encourage? What products would you suggest exporting to Africa?

7. What African products would you like to have more of in your community? How could these products be made more readily available where you live?

IN PRAISE OF CHICKEN

Stranger make die-die fowl get respect.

West African proverb.

Chicken is the choice dish of any festive occasion in West Africa. Chicken is served to honored guests and to important relatives. The serving of chicken symbolizes concern for the well-being of those who sit at your table. Chicken—boiled, stewed, fried, baked, whole, cut, skinned, unskinned—is one of the few constants in a cuisine of great variety and excitement.

Because chicken occupies so important a role, it is sometimes the subject of story, song, and proverb. Chickens appear in the many stories about "Cunnie Rabbit," a cunning rabbit who is a West African counterpart to Bre'r Rabbit. It was West African stories which Joel Chandler Harris heard and later wrote about in his series of tales written in Georgia. *"Hungry rooster don't cackle w'en he fine a wum."*

A song from Monrovia, Liberia, concludes that life is simply beautiful if you top off your day with "chicken, palm butter, and rice." And in the proverb cited above, the social significance of chicken is revealed. Tradition dictates that any stranger who appears at your door must be treated with hospitality. Although you may have only one scrawny chicken (die-die fowl), you must serve it as though it were a respectable feast fit for a king.

And it is with good reason that African cooks give chicken a starring role. Basking in a spicy sauce or nestled among rice and vegetables, chicken is delicious. Two of the most popular dishes featuring

chicken are Jollof Rice and Groundnut Stew. No meeting of African heads of state nor family reunion would gather long before eating one or the other. They are served everywhere, from the lowliest cafés to the most elegant restaurants.

Jollof Rice

This popular one-dish meal is believed to have originated among the Jollof, or Wolof, of Gambia and Senegal. In the simple version given below, you may use chicken and/or beef. In addition to salt, red or black pepper, and thyme, the cook may vary the taste with mint, nutmeg, cloves, curry powder, parsley, garlic, and brown sugar. There is one essential: tomato paste, in sufficient quantity to turn the dish crimson.

Ingredients

2-3 lb. frying chicken, cut
1 1/2-2 lb. chuck steak, cubed
4 Tbs. flour
1 tsp. black pepper
4 Tbs. vegetable oil
2 onions, peeled and chopped
2 tomatoes, peeled and chopped
chili peppers or ground red pepper, to taste
bay leaves, salt, thyme
6 oz. tomato paste
2 C rice
1 C peas (or 1 pkg. frozen peas)

Preparation

Coat the meat in a mixture of flour and black pepper. Heat the oil in a heavy skillet. Brown the meat, then transfer to a heavy casserole. Add onions, tomatoes, and peppers to oil and cook until soft. Add 2 cups water, stir, and pour the mixture over the meat. Add bay leaves, salt and thyme. Cover and cook until meat is just tender (20-25 minutes). Remove pieces of meat to a warm dish. Add the tomato paste and 1 1/2 C water to the casserole and bring the liquid to a boil. Add the rice, lower the heat, cover and cook about 12 minutes. Check to avoid sticking and add more water if necessary. Add the peas and cook 5 minutes. Recombine the meat and rice and serve hot. (6-8 servings)

Groundnut Stew

This dish is something like an Indian curry. It can be made with chicken or beef, or as a vegetarian dish. It is a favorite for parties. The stew is served over plain boiled rice and garnished with sliced bananas, chopped sweet peppers and scallions, hard-boiled eggs, fried okra, or any of a dozen other condiments.

Ingredients

2-3 lb. frying chicken, cut
3 medium onions, diced
2 T vegetable oil
1 C peanut butter
3 medium tomatoes
2 C hot water or chicken stock
salt, thyme
hot red peppers to taste
6 oz. tomato paste

Preparation

Brown the chicken pieces in the oil. Drain and set aside. Fry the finely diced onions, pepper, and tomatoes until a soft paste. Return the chicken, add water or stock, and begin simmering. Mix the peanut butter, tomato paste, and enough liquid from the pot to make a smooth gravy. Stir into the pot. Add salt and thyme. Simmer until chicken is tender, about 35-40 minutes. (6-8 servings)

AFRICAN BOOKS

One way to learn about people in another culture is to read their books, see their art, theater, and movies. Of these, books are the most readily available. Fortunately, Africa has a great literature, both traditional and modern. Prose, poetry, and plays are often available in English, sometimes in paperbacks, as well as French, Arabic, Spanish, Portuguese, and African languages.

Your school and/or local library probably has a collection of books on Africa illustrating the lifestyles, ways of thinking, poetry, art, and architecture of the many African cultures.

You might research the locally available book resources relating to Africa. Where are the books? How many are there? Who are the authors? What are the titles? Can they be brought to class? Can they be obtained by individual students?

After locating and listing the available books relating to Africa, how would you go about classifying them?

How many are written by Africans?

How many are written by Europeans or North Americans or others *about* Africa and Africans?

Are the books current? Do they reflect an accurate image of Africa? What subjects predominate? Fiction? Poetry? History? Description and travel? Politics?

Six books are listed below. Each is an internationally acclaimed literary effort. All the books are about Africa and Africans. How would you classify them? What might be their strong points? Weak points? Can you add to the collection?

H. Rider Haggard, *She*

Haggard (1856-1925) was an English novelist resident for most of his life in South Africa. He was master of the High Court in the Transvaal after the English defeated the Dutch-speaking Boer Republics. The country served as the setting for most of his romantic novels of high adventure. *She* (1887) and *King Solomon's Mines* (1885) were his most famous works. *She* did much to create popular stereotypes of a mysterious Africa where some unusual aspect of human existence lies just beneath the surface.

Alan Paton, *Cry, The Beloved Country* (New York, 1948). Also Penguin Books, Ltd. and many subsequent edidions.

Subtitled "A story of comfort in desolation," this novel by a white South African follows a Zulu preacher's search for his wayward son in Johannesburg. It is a deeply moving account of the tragedy of race relations in his country. Mr. Paton has been persecuted by his own government for dissenting from official views on *apartheid*, racial segregation. But Paton received international recognition of this and subsequent novels. The publicity made many people outside South Africa sensitive to the problem there for both Blacks and Whites.

The cinematic work of Ousmane Sembene, a Senegalese film-maker is unique. His movies, especially *Mandabi* (The Money Order) have reached beyond the select audience of international film festivals to reach a mass audience in Africa.

Chinua Achebe, *No Longer at Ease* (New York, Fawcett, 1960)

Chinua Achebe is an Ibo from Nigeria. This is the first in a series of fine novels set in contemporary Nigeria. It expresses the dilemmas and frustrations of a young, educated African idealist who has been converted to European manners that conflict with his traditionally based moral code. Achebe was one of the first African authors publishing in English to be read widely both outside and inside Africa.

Mongo Beti, *Mission to Kala* (London, Heinemann, African Writers Series, 1964). Translated from French by Peter Green.

Mongo Beti was born in the Cameroon Republic near Yaounde. He was educated in French schools there and in France. In *Mission to Kala*, he tells the story of Medza, a young student who has just failed his examination at college. Returning to his village, Medza finds that he nevertheless has prestige as a scholar. He is entrusted with a delicate mission. Told with great comic flair, author Beti nevertheless portrays through Medza's adventures the agonizing dilemmas of adjustment to another culture.

Camara Laye, *The African Child* (Fontana, 1964) Translated from French and available in numerous paperback editions.

These memories of an African childhood bring the author chronologically through adolescence. Growing up in Senegal, then a part of French West Africa, Camara Laye lived happily in a world of good and evil spirits. But Laye's sensitivity to his African past is conditioned by his later experiences. After he left Senegal, he attended a technical school in Guinea, then university and factory work in France. In the original French edition and in English translation, the book has won high praise for its literary artistry.

Peter Abrahams, *Mine Boy* (Macmillan, 1970). Also available as a Collier paperback in the African/American Library Series.

Peter Abrahams, South Africa's foremost Black writer, first published *Mine Boy* in 1946. It is as relevant to race relations in South Africa today, or to the potential tragedies in any multiracial society, as it was thirty years ago. Abrahams was one of the first South African Blacks to be forced into exile. He lives now in the Caribbean.

Amos Tutuola, *The Palm-Wine Drinkard* (London, Faber/paper editions, 1963)

Tutuola steers a fantastic voyage through a netherworld of West African spirits. The language he uses is colorful and unique. All the words are English but put into the service of African creativity. This series of interrelated stories has all the fun of a ghost story and the lyricism of poetry.

AFRICAN IMAGES

Each of us has images of what we expect Africa and Africans to be like. How accurate are these images? How much variance is there within your classroom groups? The following statements can lead you toward some answers.

(Record your responses on a separate sheet.)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. All Africans are black.	++	+	-	--
2. Africa is the largest continent.	++	+	-	--
3. Africa is poor in natural resources.	++	+	-	--
4. Africans are very intelligent.	++	+	-	--
5. Africans are very athletic.	++	+	-	--
6. Africans tend to be tall.	++	+	-	--
7. Africa is mostly covered by jungle.	++	+	-	--
8. Africa is mostly covered by desert.	++	+	-	--
9. Africa has heavy torrential rainfall.	++	+	-	--
10. Africa has no snow.	++	+	-	--
11. Africans are mostly hunters.	++	+	-	--
12. Africa lacks modern cities.	++	+	-	--
13. African art is primitive.	++	+	-	--
14. African music is modern.	++	+	-	--
15. African males have several wives.	++	+	-	--
16. African children attend schools.	++	+	-	--
17. African females tend gardens.	++	+	-	--
18. Africa has active volcanoes.	++	+	-	--
19. Africans practice witchcraft.	++	+	-	--
20. Africans earn less than Europeans.	++	+	-	--
21. Africans are often scientists.	++	+	-	--
22. African architecture is unusual.	++	+	-	--
23. Africans are largely Christian.	++	+	-	--
24. Africans are largely Muslim.	++	+	-	--
25. African values differ from non-African values.	++	+	-	--

AFRICAN STEREOTYPES: A POLL

What is a stereotype?

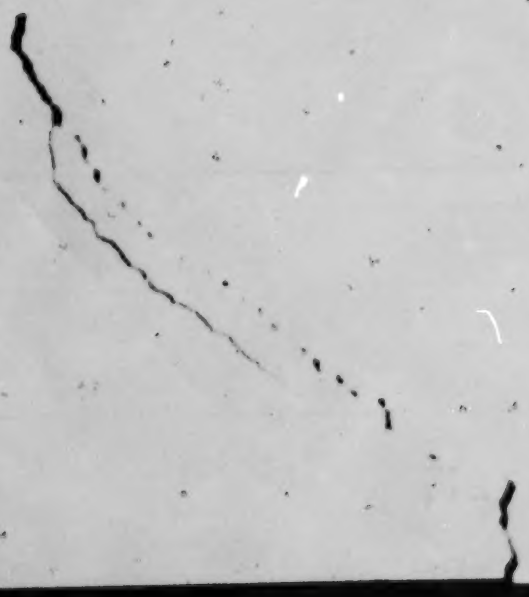
Who doesn't have them?

How can they be changed?

You, of course, are largely free of stereotypes. What about other people? They are a different matter. Some of them are even prejudiced, the victims of strong negative stereotypes.

Conduct a poll to find out what stereotypes about Africa are around. Here are several ways of going about it. Use any one or all and then report back to class your findings.

SUGGESTED POLLING TECHNIQUES

1. Ask 100 people, "What first comes to mind when you hear the word *Africa*?"
2. List 10 positive statements about Africa and Africans. Ask 10 people to "agree" or "disagree" with each one.
3. Present 20 people with an outline map of the world. Ask them to rate each continent in terms of how much they would like to live there. Use a scale from 1 to 5. First preference is labeled 1. Number 5 is the least preferred place to live. How does Africa fare among your sample population?
4. Ask 20 people to list the 5 most important products of Africa.
5. Suggest to 10 people that the United Nations headquarters might be moved from New York City to Africa. Record their responses.

Through these activities have you identified any repeating African stereotypes? What are they? Are the same stereotypes held by people of all ages? All skin colors? All religions? All income levels? All occupational levels? Both sexes? How, if at all, do African stereotypes differ among the people whom you have polled?